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EDUCATING FOR HEALTH

MENTAL AND PHYSICAL HEALTH IN SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS • JAMES MENDENHALL • GRACE L. RYAN
H. VAN ZILE HYDE • ROBERT F. HALL • PATTRIC RUTH O'KEEFE

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THE NATION CASE
by ARCHIBALD W. ANDERSON

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EDUCATION AND WORLD HEALTH

by H. VAN ZILE HYDE

The health of mankind is at a much lower level than is frequently supposed. It is perhaps not too much to say that the poor health of the people is one of the primary reasons for the poverty of so many nations. The World Health Organization has for its primary purpose the improvement of health in every land. In this article the program of WHO is described. The task of improving the health of people throughout the world is seen as one in which education must play a prominent role. The author is the United States Representative on the Executive Board of the World Health Organization.

Of the 2,000,000,000 people in the world, it is probably safe to say that half are sick. The proportion may be larger. At present there is no way of knowing the exact situation. Statistics of population, morbidity and mortality are most inadequate, and in many instances non-existent, in areas of the world where the prevalence of disease is greatest. Only the more advanced countries have the means and the trained technicians needed to collect and to publish reasonably accurate vital statistics. However, estimates have been made of the world prevalence and incidence of specific diseases on the basis of available scientific knowledge. It is estimated, for instance, that there are 300,000,000 cases of malaria per year; that there exist 50,000,000 cases of tuberculosis in the world. In some countries there is evidence that from 50 to 80% of the population is syphilitic. Protozoal and worm infections, such as hookworm, roundworm, filaria, the flukes, leishmaniasis, many of which are unknown and all of which are uncommon in the United States, infect tens and hundreds of millions of people.

In many places today half of the children born die before they are five years of age, and a third die even in the first year of life. Despite advances in medical science and public health which have relieved us, as Americans, from the constant dread of smallpox, diphtheria, cholera, bubonic plague, malaria, and a host of other diseases, the mass of humanity still lives in fear and misery. The great load of disease being carried by man is both physically and mentally debilitating.

EDUCATION IS THE KEY TO WORLD HEALTH

The extension of knoweldge and techniques which have proved their value in the United States and other advanced countries as a means toward lifting this great social and economic burden is an educational job. It requires the training of technical personnel in many lands—physicians, nurses, sanitary engineers, dentists, medical social workers to serve the whole world. This must now be done largely in the schools of North America and northern Europe.

Of even more basic importance is the need for education of the masses in the rudiments of public health.

I recall being told in Egypt of a wealthy landowner who had dug good wells, out of which his fellaheens could obtain clear and pure drinking water. After some three days' use of this safe water, the fellaheens returned to drinking the polluted water of the Nile. On inquiring into their reasons, the landowner was told that the people preferred the Nile water; that it was obviously better because the Nile made the fields fertile and would therefore make the people fertile.

Education in health collides with the traditions of centuries and the ingrained habits of the people. The conquest of hookworm in our own country met the same resistance. It took many years to educate the South in the use of the sanitary privy, the simple answer to hookworm which so greatly depressed the effectiveness of manpower. The sanitary privy is likewise the answer to hookworm everywhere. It is the answer also to the great problem of the liver fluke which causes debilitating infection in approximately 70% of the rural population of Egypt and an unknown amount of disease elsewhere in tropical and semi-tropical areas.

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Education of the peoples in the use of DDT to the extent that its use would become a habit of life in malarious areas would eliminate that disease, as well as greatly diminish other insect-borne diseases.

In health there is a vast educational job ahead—education of the most basic and simple type, accompanied by education of a highly technical nature. Success in improving world health is predicated upon success in lifting the great shroud of ignorance under which disease flourishes. The ultimate attainment of a healthy world cannot be reached until the masses can read and write; can grasp the message of public health, for public health education fundamentally is an activation of the individual. Public health and education are interdependent.

PRINCIPLES OF THE WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION

The World Health Organization, which is a vital part of the great United Nations structure, has been created to attack world health problems. It was early realized that a broad basic concept was necessary for an effective attack. Accordingly, the 61 governments that signed the Constitution of the World Health Organization at the International Health Conference in New York on July 22, 1946, defined health as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well being, not merely the absence of disease or infirmity," and agreed that the following principles are basic to the happiness, harmonious relations and security of all peoples.

> The enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being without distinction of race, religion, political belief, economic or social condition.
>
> The health of all peoples is fundamental to the attainment of peace and security and is dependent upon the fullest cooperation of individuals and States.
>
> The achievement of any State in the promotion and protection of health is of value to all.
>
> Unequal development in different countries in the promotion of health and control of disease, especially communicable disease, is a common danger.
>
> Healthy development of the child is of basic importance; the ability to live harmoniously in a changing total environment is essential to such development.
>
> The extension to all peoples of the benefits of medical, psychological and related knowledge is essential to the fullest attainment of health.
>
> *Informed opinion and active cooperation on the part of the public are of the utmost importance in the improvement of the health of the people.*
>
> Governments have a responsibility for the health of their peoples which can be fulfilled only by the provision of adequate health and social measures.

The World Health Organization did not spring anew from the ground at the end of World War II. It has deep roots, reaching back at least half a century. The International Office of Public Health at Paris and the Health Organization of the League of Nations, founded in 1907 and 1922, respectively, and now absorbed by the WHO, developed techniques which have demonstrated their effectiveness in the improvement of health on a world basis. At the same time, the WHO profited by the splendid tradition of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau which was created in 1902 and is now being integrated as the Regional Western Hemisphere Office of WHO.

THE PROGRAM OF WHO

Building on the large body of experience gained by its predecessors, the WHO is now engaged in an active program which includes the loan of technical experts to governments, practical demonstrations of methods of disease control, and the award of fellowships in technical fields. Through these devices, it is assisting countries to build effective national and local health departments which can render service to all people whoever and wherever they are.

Surveying the vast scene of disease and debility the WHO has found it necessary to concentrate its restricted resources upon a limited number of urgent priority problems. These are malaria, tuberculosis, venereal disease, maternal and child health, environmental sanitation, and nutrition. These fields encompass the most pressing health problems of the world today. At the same time, they are fields in which great knowledge, many techniques, and new agents—such as DDT, penicillin, BCG tuberculosis vaccine —when utilized properly on a wide basis will have a dramatic impact upon the distress and debility which are contributing to present world instability. Indeed, we can now even contemplate the eradication of some of the worst diseases.

To carry out these programs, as indeed for any program in public health, more and better trained health workers are needed. WHO is therefore conducting a large training program. Health personnel from many countries is being brought to the United States, to Canada and to centers in Europe.

There is nothing complex about the structure of WHO. It consists of an over all planning body, the World Health Assembly, which meets annually and is composed of representatives of the member governments, at present fifty eight. In practically all cases, their representatives are the top public health officials of the Member Governments.

The plans and decisions of the World Health As-

sembly are carried out through an Executive Board and a Secretariat. The Executive Board meets two or three times a year to develop, on a detailed basis, the general plans of the Assembly. The Secretariat, under a Director-General, carries these plans into action. The Director-General, elected by the first World Health Assembly in the summer of 1948, is Dr. Brock Chisholm, a distinguished Canadian psychiatrist and public health statesman. His staff, now numbering perhaps 300 persons, has its headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland, and offices in New York, Singapore, New Delhi, with missions of various sizes established in China, Ethiopia, Italy, Greece, Poland and developing in an increasing number of other countries.

In order to bring the best expert opinion to bear upon its plans and actions, the WHO has appointed expert committees in a number of fields. These meet one, two, or more times a year and are composed of world renowned experts who serve as individuals —not as representatives of their Governments. It is a matter of satisfaction that essentially all of these committees include an American expert, evidence of the place that this country now holds among the nations of the world in the field of medicine and public health.

In carrying out its work, the WHO cooperates, on a day-to-day basis, with the other economic and social agencies within the United Nations framework and with the voluntary international agencies in its field of interest. It is part and parcel of the great official and unofficial effort to improve the social and economic structure of the modern world. It is the job of the WHO to give leadership and technical direction to this effort insofar as it concerns health. It is both the gadfly and the workhorse in this field.

Alone, the WHO cannot lift the great burden of disease and distress shouldered by mankind. As part of the general movement to better the economic and social condition of man, as a basis for peace, it can make one of the great contributions. No organization has such clearly-defined problems; such a wealth of proven techniques; such an opportunity or challenge. In order to do its job, it requires the sympathetic understanding and active support of all peoples everywhere, but, particularly of the people of the United States who have at their command such great resources and a limitless treasure of knowledge and experience.

The great task of the WHO is the education of the millions in matters which have become for many the ordinary decencies of life. In order to accomplish its objective, it must become one of the great educational institutions of the world.

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Candidates for A. E. F. Offices[1]

See ballot on page 160. Vote before April 22.

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GOODWIN WATSON, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Past president of Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues. Author of books and articles.

[1]Nominating Committee: Mary Carlton, Chairman, Harl Douglass, W. Carson Ryan.

(Continued on Page 136)

HEALTH AND LIVING STANDARDS

by JAMES E. MENDENHALL

Health has long been accepted as one of the primary objectives of education. Yet, the educational profession has been slow to recognize the fact that the attainment of this objective is conditioned by the social and economic circumstances under which people live. As a result, instruction in health has often been less effective than was hoped for. In this article the reader will find a stimulating review of the facts relating to the dependence of health upon the standard of living. Perhaps the improvement of health is as much a problem in economic and political education as it is a problem of health education. The author, a well-known writer and teacher, is now on the editorial staff of Science Research Associates, Chicago.

Nearly everybody recognizes that health and wealth are related. And that relationship is true both for the nation as a whole and for the individuals who make up that nation. Yet relatively few people are adequately informed with reference to the impact of living standards upon health status.

What is required first is a better concept of what is meant by good health. That was clearly and broadly stated in the constitution drafted by the World Health Assembly of the United Nations in 1946. In part, it said:

> Health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity . . . . Health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being . . . . Health is fundamental to the attainment of peace and security . . . . Healthy development of the child is of basic importance; the ability to live harmoniously in a changing total environment is essential to such development . . . . Governments have a responsibility for the health of their people.[1]

Among the nations of the world, the United States stands very high, if not at the top, in both the health and living standards of its people. No matter how health is measured—by incidence of illness, by life span, or by mortality rates—Americans as a whole are a comparatively healthy people. Their living standards, in terms of real incomes (what they receive in goods and services), are on the average and by far the highest in the world. Nevertheless, the American people as in the past still continue their efforts to raise their levels of health and of other desired aspects of daily living.

WHAT LIVING CONDITIONS INFLUENCE HEALTH?

How healthy a person is, of course, depends in part upon the physical and mental characteristics which he has inherited from his parents and their ancestors. The state of his health is also determined in significant part by his environment, which is more or less under his control. How that environment bears upon the health of one group of American workers and their families is pointed out in this report of living in a bituminous coal area:[2]

> Living, as he [the miner] does, in a camp that might be described as more or less average, he probably does not realize that he has been spared the ordeal and degredation of having to reside in the squalor of one of the worst of the coal mining communities, which are made up of an assortment of unpainted, mouldering shacks set in a broad plot of muddy soil and mine waste, and surrounded by garbage, animal wastes and malodorous filth . . . .
>
> Hope is quick when the hills are green and there is a chance for an energetic family to have a garden; but in the wintertime when the barometer is low and the grime hangs like a pall over the camp, and the yards and roads turn into muddy quagmires, and the cold winds sweep through the breaches in the doors, floors, windows, and walls, the miner's wife must show spirit as well as resolution and skill. That is the time when the "miseries" show up. The housewife, mornings, builds a fire in the grate and lights the kitchen stove. In the winter evenings and during the day, the family huddles about the grate, stove, or space heater, except in the better camps where a modern, central heating system exists . . . .
>
> The miner's wife is not familiar with the basic principles of nutrition. She buys and feeds her family the traditional diet in her part of the country, and that hap-

[1] Quoted in "United Action for World Health," by Dr. Martha M. Eliot, *Survey Graphic*, September 1948, p. 394.

[2] From *A Medical Survey of the Bituminous-Coal Industry*. Report of the Coal Mines Administration, Department of the Interior, Washingon, D. C., 1947.

pens to be less scientific than the diet of urban industrial families. . . .

Also lacking in the culture of the miner's wife is a full enough appreciation of health and hygiene. So habituated is she to the pollution of the garbage-strewn creek running through the camp, to the pungent odors of the burning waste dump, to the foul stench of the backyard privy and dung, that she is not troubled by the seepage from the privy that trickles through her back yard or the fact that the water in the well or spring may be contaminated. She has protested, but has since ceased to care, about the absence of screens on the windows of her house. She regards the flies not as disease carriers but merely as pests that annoy her children. She simply does as her neighbors do—she flings the dirty wash water and slops onto the ground from her back porch; she carries her gathered garbage to the burning slag piles, if she is not saving it to feed to the hogs; and she distributes a few pieces of flypaper about the house to catch some of the flies and, on occasion, pursues the remaining flies, bugs, and mosquitoes with a swatter.

When illness strikes the household, she has a doctor to call, not by telephone for she has none, but by messenger, a child or a friendly neighbor. Under the traditional prepayment plans for medical care which are in vogue in the coal fields, whereby a small amount is "checked off" from her husband's wages each pay day, the family in the coal camp is entitled to the services of a physician who comes to the house when it is not possible for the patient to go to his office.

These children in more than half of the coal camps have been reached by the national school-lunch program. The youngsters who are benefited by the program obtain at least some milk, often some sandwiches and perhaps dessert in addition, and where facilities are available, a hot lunch. The others bring their lunch with them, which they eat in some favorite spot in the school yard when the weather is good.

The miner's children, under the school health program, generally are vaccinated early against smallpox, and sometimes they are also immunized against other diseases. For this service they go to the office of the "company doctor," who possibly already has immunized these same children, when they were babies, against diptheria.

As this graphic description suggests, health is influenced by a number of important factors. Among these are not only medical care, hygiene, and sanitation but also living standards which include housing, food, clothing, recreation, and educational opportunities.

WHAT IS THE GENERAL INCOME PICTURE?

The health of the nation is in no small measure based upon the living standards of the people, and these standards are closely related to incomes. Figures on the national income and the per capta income for selected years, since 1929, are presented in Table 1.

Preliminary estimates indicate that both national income and per capita income in 1948 were as high as, if not slightly higher than, in 1947. Furthermore, taking into account much higher Federal income taxes during and after World War II and in spite of the skyrocketing price level after June 1946, the general increases in both measures of income represent a real gain in the volume of goods and services purchased and used by the American people. If the present high levels of production and consumption continue, they can go far toward helping to maintain and improve living standards and health conditions throughout the nation. If a severe economic depres-

Table 1
NATIONAL AND PER CAPITA INCOME PAYMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, FOR SELECTED YEARS[3]

Year	National Income Payments	Per Capita Income Payments
	Amounts in:	
	Billions of Dollars*	Dollars
1929	87	680
1930	75	596
1933	40	368
1935	57	460
1940	81	575
1945	182	1,177
1947	202	1,323

* All figures rounded to nearest billion.

[3]Source: "State Income Payments in 1947," *Survey of Current Business*, U. S. Department of Commerce, August 1948, p. 10.

sion like that in the early 1930's were to come, however, it as then would bring mass unemployment, low levels of consumption, and higher rates of illness.

It should be noted, however, that totals and averages often conceal important differences. For example, among the states there are wide variations in per capita income. In 1947, it ranged from $659 in Mississippi to $1,842 in California, a ratio of 1 to 3. These differences furthermore are found not only in income data but also in figures dealing with the provision of medical services. In comparison with the richer states, the poorer states have fewer physicians, nurses, dentists, and hospital beds per 1,000 people.

Of the $6,500 million Americans spent on medical care, about $1,355 million was paid for drug preparations (including proprietaries), $1,333 million for hospital care, $1,656 million for physicians' services, and $907 million for dental services. The last approximately equalled what they spent on death expenses—funeral and burial services, cemetaries and crematories, and monuments and tombstones combined. The figures on medical care, it should be pointed out, do not include what Americans paid for tax-supported health services.

Table 2

PERSONAL CONSUMPTION EXPENDITURES, BY TYPES OF PRODUCTS, IN 1947[4]

Product	Amount in billions of Dollars *	Per cent of total expenditures
1. Food and tobacco	61.8	37.5
2. Clothing	22.6	13.7
3. Personal care	2.3	1.4
4. Housing	14.4	8.7
5. Household operation	22.0	13.3
6. Medical care	6.5	4.0
7. Death expenses	0.9	0.5
8. Personal business	6.0	3.6
9. Transportation	15.5	9.4
10. Recreation	9.4	5.6
11. Private education and research	1.1	0.7
12. Religious and welfare activities	1.6	1.0
13. Foreign travel (net)	0.7	0.4
Total expenditures	164.8	99.8

* All figures rounded to nearest one-tenth of billion or of percentage.

[4]Source: *Survey of Current Business*, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C., July 1948.

HOW MUCH DO AMERICANS SPEND ON HEALTH CARE?

It is interesting and essential to note how the American people distribute their expenditures for consumer goods and services. This information, for a recent year, appears in Table 2.

WHO PAYS FOR MEDICAL CARE?

The burden of supporting medical care is distributed among consumers, government, philanthropy, and industry. As Table 3 portrays, consumers themselves pay for nearly three-fourths of the total cost.

In general, the amounts which consumers spend for medical care varies according to the size of their incomes, as Table 4 shows.

Table 3

ESTIMATED ANNUAL MEDICAL CARE EXPENDITURES IN THE UNITED STATES, BY SOURCE OF FUNDS, 1941-42[5]

Source	Amount in Millions	Percentage
1. Consumers	$3,710	73
2. Government	1,000	20
3. Philanthropy	260	5
4. Industry	100	2
Total expenditures	$5,070	100

[5]Source: *Medical Care and Costs in Relation to Family Income. A Statistical Source Book.* Federal Security Agency, Social Security Administration, Washington, D. C., Bureau Memorandum No. 51, May 1947.

Table 4

MONEY INCOME, DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES, AND AVERAGE EXPENDITURES FOR MEDICAL CARE, IN CITIES, 1941-42[6]

Income class, by money income *	Per cent of families in each class	Average expenditure for medical care
Less than $ 500	4.2	$ 48
$ 500 - $ 999	7.7	67
$1,000 - $1,499	7.1	78
$1,500 - $1,999	11.9	93
$2,000 - $2,499	13.9	95
$2,500 - $2,999	13.2	119
$3,000 - $3,999	19.9	147
$4,000 - $4,999	9.6	191
$5,000 or more	12.5	260

* Annual money income after deduction of personal taxes.

[6]Source: The same as Table 3.

Here it should be noted that the wealthiest class spent more than five times as much as the poorest class for medical care, and more than twice as much as the middle class ($2,500-$2,999). Also, that on the average the $500-$999 class spent about 9 percent of their net incomes on medical care; the $2,500-$2,999 class, 5 per cent; and the $4,000-$4,999 class, slightly more than 4 per cent.

HOW ARE ILLNESS, INCOMES, AND MEDICAL SERVICES RELATED?

Every income group of course is subject to illness, as Table 5 points out. In general, however, the higher the income the fewer days of disabling illness. And this was especially true for the two groups 25 years and older. At all ages, moreover, the disability rate of the relief group was much higher than that of any other income class.

Table 5

DISABLING ILLNESS*, BY INCOME CLASSES AND AGE GROUPS, IN 83 CITIES, 1935-36[7]

Income class	Average number of days of disabling illness per person, Age group			
	Under 15	15-24	25-64	65 and over
All incomes	5.8	5.1	9.9	35.1
Relief	7.1	8.0	20.7	58.0
Less than $1,000	5.4	5.7	12.3	36.9
$1,000 - $1,499	5.4	4.5	7.7	30.4
$1,500 - $1,999	5.3	4.0	6.6	26.4
$2,000 - $2,999	5.6	3.5	6.4	26.8
$3,000 - $4,999	5.8	3.3	6.2	22.4
$5,000 or more	6.2	3.0	5.9	24.4

* Causes of illness included respiratory diseases, accidents, orthopedic impairments, degenerative diseases, nervous diseases, digestive diseases, rheumatism, tuberculosis, and infectious diseases.

[7]Source: The same as Table 3.

Although lower income families on the average have more days of disabling illness than those with higher incomes, the latter obtain more medical and dental services. This is apparent in Tables 6 and 7, which follow. Those with higher incomes have a higher percentage receiving physicians' services and more physicians' calls per year. Likewise they make many more visits to dentists each year.

HOW ARE LIVING STANDARDS ASSOCIATED WITH HEALTH?

From some of the foregoing tables, it should *not* be concluded that there is a 100-per cent positive correlation between higher incomes, and higher personal expenditures for medical care, lower disability from illness, and availability of more medical and dental services. Even within the same income class, families vary greatly in health expenditures, in confinement by illness, and in the number of physicians' calls and visits to the dentist. And there is undoubtedly much overlapping in the distribution patterns covering these features, among all the different income classes.

Nevertheless, there is a growing body of reliable information which casts more light upon the re-

Table 6

PHYSICIANS SERVICES, BY FAMILY INCOME CLASSES, IN A 12-MONTH PERIOD, 1928-31[8]

(38,450 persons in 8,639 white families)

Income class	Per cent of persons receiving physicians' services	Average number of home and office calls per family
All incomes	46.5	10.4
Less than $1,200	42.6	7.8
$1,200 - $1,999	43.3	8.8
$2,000 - $2,999	46.1	10.0
$3,000 - $4,999	49.5	12.4
$5,000 - $9,999	57.0	15.2
$10,000 or more	65.1	22.9

[8]Source: The same as Table 3.

Table 7

DENTAL CARE, BY FAMILY INCOME CLASSES, IN A 12-MONTH PERIOD, 1928-31[9]

(38,450 persons in 8,639 white families)

Income class	Number of dental cases* per 1,000 persons
Less than $1,200	122
$1,200 - $1,999	192
$2,000 - $2,999	252
$3,000 - $4,999	342
$5,000 or more	596

* A dental case is defined as one visit to a dentist. Therefore, the number given here includes visits by persons making one or more visits during the year.

[9]Source: The same as Table 3.

lationship between living standards and health. In the field of housing, it is a well-known fact that city slum dwellers have a higher rate of tuberculosis and other respiratory diseases than do those residing in better living quarters. In the field of nutrition, it is recognized that low-income families, say in poor farm areas, suffer from diseases based upon dietary deficiencies. Yet it is also established that large numbers of the families, including some in all income classes, do not know or practice food-using habits which yield the greatest nutritional or health values.

In general, however, it can be said that "good things go together"—good health, *and* good medical care, good living standards, good incomes, good homes, good food and clothing, good recreation, good education, and good communities. It can also be said that on the whole a good money income is essential to obtaining a standard of living which meets or exceeds minimum essentials of health and decency.

Finally, it should be noted, the goals of improving health through raising living standards can be reached through a combination of factors and procedures. These require individual effort, and study and action by voluntary groups and by government at local, state, and national levels. Such effort, study, and action can be stimulated and guided through education in the scientific, social, economic, and political aspects of health improvement—education designed to aid the American people to develop better understanding and better ways of working together, for the common good.

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Candidates For A. E. F. Offices

(Continued from Page 131)

DONALD NYLEN, Director, Counseling Schools Seattle Washington. Formerly on staff of Ryther Child Center, Seattle.

HARL R. DOUGLASS, Director, College of Education, University of Colorado. Member of Board of Directors of numerous educational publications.

W. H. BURTON, Director of Apprenticeship Teaching and Lecturer, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University. Formerly President, Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA.

PRUDENCE BOSTWICK, Supervisor, Department of Instruction, Denver. Formerly Chairman of Board of Directors, Adult Education Council, Denver.

THE ISABELLA COUNTY HEALTH PROGRAM

by ROBERT F. HALL AND GRACE L. RYAN

This article describes how a college, a county health department, and a community are cooperatively building a community health program. The college health program is integrated with that of the community. The way in which the health resources of the state are being utilized is also presented. Dr. Hall is Director of the Isabella County Health Department and Miss Ryan is Professor of Health Education, Central Michigan College of Education, Mt. Pleasant, Michigan.

About two years ago a rather unique situation developed in Isabella county whereby the County Health Department and the Central Michigan College of Education agreed to join forces with the community in an effort to improve the health of its people. Joint financing plus special funds from the Bureau of Maternal and Child Health of the State Health Department made the project possible.

To be best equipped to play an adequate role in leadership, both organizations felt the need of examining their own programs with a view to their betterment.

THE COLLEGE IMPROVES ITS HEALTH PROGRAM

The college administration referred its task to the college health committee, a well established working group. This committee decided that its primary work was that of pointing the way to improving the health of the campus community through better environment, better health education, and better health practices.

The working plan of this campus committee has been to have general meetings for problem finding, followed by specific tasks in sub-committees. Each sub-committee reports the results of its work to the central committee where the proposals are discussed and drawn up as recommendations. All recommendations go directly to the president who studies them and reports his reactions back to the committee. Often he directs the problems to the divisions concerned. If at all possible, something is done about them. Many improvements have been made following these recommendations. In cases where increased budget is required, the president reports the fact to the committee indicating whether he will consider the recommendation in terms of long-time planning.

One sub-committee studied health and safety in the campus environment. Following are examples of problems concerning which they have made recommendations: lighting in classrooms and library; drinking fountains; hazardous slippery conditions on the steps in one of the buildings; first aid equipment in all buildings; sanitation standards for food preparation and service; traffic control and improved parking on and adjacent to the campus; improved emergency fire extinguishers; sanitary standards on temporary housing units. Wherever necessary, consultants were called in. For example, the administration invited the sanitarian from the county health department to make a survey of sanitary conditions in the college kitchen and dining rooms so that the college might make any necessary changes to meet the approved standards.

Two other sub-committees are studying two problems particularly; one, to find ways in which prospective teachers, both elementary and secondary, may participate in health programs in schools where they are doing their student teaching; and secondly, to find means of improving pre-service health education. These committees are made up of teachers from college laboratory schools, the department of education and psychology, and the health coordinator from the county health department.

The program which the committees agree upon at the present time for pre-service education includes the following areas: observation of health conditions of school children; techniques of testing vision, hearing, and other duties related to the screening process; school relations with community health agencies; resources, such as audio-visual aids, pamphlet material, speakers; program content; growth and development of the child; visitations to county and state health agencies; assisting with medical examinations of children; mental health; and home visiting with health department personnel.

One committee has carried on an in-service education program for its own membership in critical study of the present program of health education, and in study of community resources. Resource people have been brought in from the State and County Health Departments, the State Department of Mental Health, and State Library in such areas as sanitation, nutrition, dental health, mental health, home and family living, library resources.

Another sub-committee is making a study of how students who are not preparing for teaching may have

more health experiences while on campus. This committee is new and has not as yet reported.

Another group is working on faculty health policies. They have discussed such matters as compulsory medical examination of faculty members and compulsory X-rays for tuberculosis, but have not made definite recommendations.

As the members of the general committee look ahead they see a great deal to do. Among the needs are: continuing study by the above groups; study of the campus environment and instructional practices as related to the mental health of the students; a study of the in-service program in health education, both for college staff and for teachers in the field serviced by the college; objective testing of health attitudes and practices of students; and evaluation from time to time of the total college program.

At the present time our college program in health education is probably rather typical. All freshmen, with the exception of a few pre-professional students, who are here for only two years, have either a year of human biology in which health implications are stressed, or a three hour course in personal health which is based especially on the problems of college age. In both courses consultant service from the community and state is used in such areas as nutrition, dental health, reproduction, public health, medical insurance, and mental health. Audio-visual aids are used extensively. The personal health classes do some visiting in the community to such institutions as the County Health Department, the community hospital, and a state home for the mentally deficient which is located here in Mt. Pleasant. Trips are occasionally made to the Michigan Department of Health at Lansing.

As has been pointed out above, our professional students have preparation for health teaching in their education courses which correlate with their student teaching. Students who are majoring in physical and health education have courses which prepare them for more specialized teaching than that of the general teacher.

The college maintains a well equipped modern health service with provision for hospitalization. The physician in charge is also the director of the county health department which makes an ideal situation for college-community relationships. In illness students may choose any physician in the community. Local physicians come to the health service to treat students who are hospitalized there and they also assist with the college-sponsored medical examinations of all entering and graduating students. Students are directed to the health services for health counselling by the Division of Guidance and Personnel, of which it is a part.

Those who are interested in the health education on the campus feel the need for continued study of ways to give health experiences to students both on campus and in the community, not as courses, but as actual participation in group processes such as are described in the work of the county health department.

SOLVING THE PROBLEM OF COMMUNITY HEALTH

The second phase of the Isabella County Community and College Health Program involves the college and the health department working together in a new approach to the general problem of community health. A basic health department program has been developed which does not differ materially from that of the standard functions of a county health department with the exception that more emphasis is placed on maternal and child health services.

The specific difference in our approach in the program is in the attempt to broaden the educational aspects of the health department program. This is being attempted by an intensive effort toward community-wide participation. The location of the college which encourages experimentation in education and its active participation in this combined program makes our county an ideal place in which to try such a venture. The ultimate goal of all health programs is the education of the community in all of the phases of health which make for happier and more healthful living. The chief obstacle to the goal seems to lie in the lack of community education for health. It is the experience of most health departments that they are operating way below their potentially effective level because of a general lack of public understanding. The majority of individuals living within the jurisdiction of a health department have little knowledge of the services and potential assistance that can be given to a community.

The over-all community participation group was developed slowly with much thought and planning. After many joint meetings of the college administration, health department, and school representatives, it was finally decided that this over-all group should take the form of a County Health Council.

County health councils are not a new development and many communities have such an organization. The Isabella County Community Health Council was organized in a different way than other existing councils. It was decided that to be most effective in our area both geographical and organizational representation must be included. To cover the county geographically, a representative was elected to the council from each township in the county. The school children participated by taking to their homes a letter of explanation and a ballot. This letter requested the parents to name three individuals in order of

their preference to be their representative on the council and one who would also act as chairman of all health activities in their township. A similar procedure was used in the five schools in Mt. Pleasant, the only city in Isabella County. These were returned, tabulated, and the name appearing the largest number of times was selected.

Each individual was then contacted by mail and given the opportunity to decide whether he would serve. In case of a refusal the second name was treated similarly until we had an acceptance from each township and city school. This gave us 21 representatives and, incidentally, the same proportion of rural and city representation as on our board of supervisors. In addition, 25 organizations, carefully selected from the list of all organizations in the county, were requested to appoint a representative to the council. This gave us a council with broad representation throughout the county.

THE COMMUNITY HEALTH COUNCIL AT WORK

The first meeting of the council was devoted to presentation of background material by members of the college administration, health department, and state health department. Election of officers and appointment of an executive committee completed the meeting. At the second meeting the real working organization was started. Small-group discussion technique was used to explore the health problems which the members felt to be most important in our community. This brought out five general groups of problems and immediately the council members were asked to select the one in which they were most interested and concerned. Five committees were then formed and each held a brief meeting to elect a chairman and set the date for its first meeting.

Each of these committees have now started work, with members of the college and health department assisting as consultants. These five committees are working on the following subjects: services to children, sanitation, public education, dental health, cancer.

A one day conference is now planned at the college to help in bringing the council into even closer contact with the program and as an in-service training experience for the committee chairmen.

We believe this Community Health Council will be the leading community organization through which county wide participation in the health program will be achieved. A few other specific organizations have been found necessary to deal with the more narrow and specialized problems of health. A teachers' health committee has been organized with representation from schools throughout the county including the college laboratory schools. This group has been very active and valuable. With their help, a school health policy manual was prepared and distributed to all teachers in the county. This helped to give uniformity in the many routine health procedures including the problems involved in control of communicable diseases.

The general school health program was developed with the assistance and advice of the teachers' health committee. A teachers' workshop on school health was planned with the help of the committee. The community itself financed the workshop through contributions from the county chapters of the Tuberculosis Association, Polio Foundation and Cancer Society. The college furnished the leadership and many of the consultants for this project. In addition a follow-up extension class was organized by the college to continue the study throughout the year.

Time alone will prove how effective this community participation will be in achieving our health goals. Certainly we can already see a definite broadening of health knowledge in the community, and both the college and the health department have found their own horizons definitely broadened by the combined effort.

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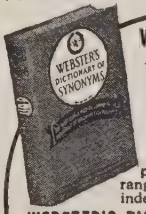

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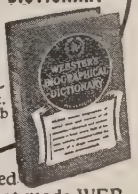

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STRAIGHTENING CHILDREN

by PATTRIC RUTH O'KEEFE

The development of good posture is seen as involving the whole individual, not just his body. The feelings, ideas, beliefs, and expectations of the child or youth are all tied into the way he controls, or fails to control, his bodily posture. The reader will find here a program for improving posture through a number of approaches involving the total health of the individual. The author is Director of Health and Physical Education, Kansas City, Missouri.

"The posture of the children in my school is simply terrible, and I want some exercises to straighten them". This request, which came from an elementary school principal, may seem very simple, unless the request is directed to an individual who believes that the building of posture is a complex, complicated task.

The person to whom this request was made could have, at one time, responded with assurance and conviction. She had been taught that, if a set of prescribed exercises were practiced fifteen minutes each day of the week, noticeable improvement and desirable posture would result in a short time. Sincere was this person's faith at that time in the teachings of her instructors and in the tools of her profession.

LAMENTATION

Great has been the recognition of influencing physical factors, but limited has been the recognition given to the effect social and emotional factors have had on the static and mobile posture of growing boys and girls. According to present-day knowledge, it is recognized that the problem of securing and maintaining desirable postures cannot be solved by a dosage of exercises with the patent medicine guarantee to cure all.

Too many educators, who consider themselves Progressives, in reality separate the mind and the body of children when they plan curriculums. This is done in most cases because their philosophy and practices have not become unified. These educators glibly talk of the whole child, or the child as a whole, and then proceed to attain goals in the vivisectional approach. This approach is illustrated by the principal who plans to change the static and mobile postures of children directly through physical activities, or by administrators who are willing to give academic credit to Latin, but consider Physical Education merely as a non-credit requirement.

An educator, who wishes to consider the problem of securing and maintaining good postures from the physical approach only, should recognize that nothing less than complete x-rays of all children by skilled technicians and interpretations by specialists in the area of health can be adequate in the initial steps of planning a functional, physical posture program. A complete and thorough examination of each child and a record of his case history would also be desirable and necessary. Records of all examinations should be placed on the accumulative school record card, which should be initiated as soon as a child enters school or, preferably, during his pre-school exepriences.

Administrators and other school personnel would be accepting a defeatist attitude, however, if nothing were done for the improvement and maintenance of posture just because the program in a local situation is, through necessity, inferior to a more scientific and costly approach.

CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING

Taking conditions as they exist at any specific time, and recognizing limitations and potentialities, often prove to be a vantage point from which to make plans for the future. Such was the view of the principal when he discussed procedures for developing good posture with the specialist in physical education and health. Among the first steps, which seemed of primary importance, was a general discussion of needs and responses to needs by a representative group. The custodian of the school, the president of the Student Council, a primary grade member of the Student Council, the president of the Parent-Teacher Association, the school nurse, a classroom teacher, the principal, and specialists from the Health and Physical Education Department met at the school building to discuss needs and responses to needs in relation to this important subject of posture. During the conference, many factors which influenced the total physical well-being of boys and girls were discussed. It was recognized that factors influencing the physical well-being of individuals naturally influenced posture.

In the first conference, illustrations of factors and situations which influence posture were a part of the discussion. All stories told by members of the planning committee contributed in shaping a general philosophy of posture education, or were indicative of their philosophy. Some of the stories were humorous, while others were sad.

One story, as told by a committeeman, was about a boy who had been taken to a pediatrician by his mother. He had been made to follow the physician's instructions in every detail. The boy's posture became worse day by day, it seemed to his mother and teacher. A new pediatrician was contacted, and similar instructions were given to the boy by the physician and enforced by the mother. No improvement was discernable. One day the mother could tolerate the "pretzel" posture assumed by her son no longer. So, with the remark, "straighten up", she gave her son a light, but emphatic blow on his back. Up went his body, and down came his pants. The final diagnosis disclosed the desire to wear a belt, given to him by his war-hero brother, necessitated an incongruous position of his body to make his belt, his pants, and his waist line fit in a functional manner.

A teacher at the conference related an account of a conscientious little girl whose mother punished her by taking away her glasses. Without her glasses, the little girl could not see without undue strain and concentration. In an effort to get her eyes as close as possible to the object from which she was reading, an imbalance of body segments resulted.

A boy, who was president of the Student Council, recounted a fad among his gang-mates when he was younger. He said that every member of his gang had to carry, in his left hip pocket, a black walnut which was sandpapered smooth on one side, so that the member's signature could be written on the nut. This nut served as identification in the gang. He related that sitting on this nut necessitated many changes in posture in pursuit of comfort, and when a position was found that diminished pressure on a boy's hip, it was most welcome. His observations were that members of his gang probably could not have received commendation for good sitting postures.

The implications of the stories about the hero worshipping boy, the little girl with sub-normal vision, and the boy who conformed to a requirement of his gang are numerous. Although only a few stories have been told, they illustrate how closely related and inseparable social, emotional and physical influences are. Seldom can influences be separated to the extent that they can be identified as distinctly social, physical or emotional.

Out of this conference and subsequent conferences with larger groups from the school and community, a plan evolved for the improvement of posture, which was thought to be practical and which met with the approval of school and family personnel.

Some of the suggestions given were acted upon immediately, others are in the process of being accomplished, and a limited number might be classified as visionary. No attempt has been made to classify the suggestions as they were given, due to the fact that the classifications change each day. A change which contributes to the improvement of postures may have been a suggestion yesterday but has become an actuality today. It is also true that the tempo of changes and improvements is different among rooms in the school building.

WHAT THE GROUP RECOMMENDED

The following is only a resume of suggestions illustrative of cooperative planning in relationship to securing and maintaining desirable postures,

Glares to be eliminated from all shiny surfaces of furniture, blackboards and glass surfaces. The highly polished surface was removed from furniture. Some blackboards were coated with charcoal, while others were washed with water in which black-water-paint powder had been placed. Shades or adjustable curtains were placed over glass surfaces which had a high degree of reflection. Some rooms were equipped with glass boards of pastel colors to replace blackboards. Colored chalk was used to provide maximum contrast with the boards on which it was used. Soft chalk, without high content of wax, was used to prevent the glare caused by wax from chalk. The wax from chalk remains on boards after it has been used. Eye strain became minimized, strains and nervous tensions became lessened, and fatigue was decreased.

Mirrors for each room. All representatives wanted full-length mirrors placed near the entrance of each room. A consciousness of one's appearance was thought to be desirable. Appearance was discussed in terms of dress, physical posture, facial expression and grooming. The suggestion was made that teachers might welcome the opportunity to see how they looked to children throughout the day, as well as to themselves. Children from some homes told of having no opportunity to see themselves from head to foot. Good posture standards could be learned and the results observed by individuals, if the mirrors were available. Some full-length mirrors have been secured.

Adjustable, movable seats and desks for all grades. It was lamented that seats and desks usually lasted two generations and that the Board of Education was reluctant to replace the sturdily built furniture. It is generally recognized that the seats purchased a decade ago for the average school room are conducive to discomfort, limit classroom activities, and cause poor visibility and fatigue. Furniture in some rooms has been purchased to fit the individual child who uses it, instead of making the child's body fit the furniture. Rows of seats where children used to be seated are being eliminated for a functional arrangement. Rows of desks usually create a situtation which causes children to sit in the light rays going to the desks of other children. Shadows and series of shadows often result

from children sitting in formal rows. With rows of desks, it is difficult to change the height of a desk, as it affects the height of the seat of the child in front of him. Unless adjustable furniture, which can be regulated as to height of seat and desk, width of space between seat and desk, and tilt of desk can be provided, individual needs cannot be met.

Tables with flat tops for the use of children in primary grades were evaluated as to desirable results in work and comfort. Regardless of the brief time primary children use school furniture, it was thought all furniture not fitted to the individual using it contributed to frustration, fatigue and poor study habits.

Physical examinations. Physical examinations for every child, preferably by his family physician, were considered to be essential. If a child has a thorough examination by a competent family physician, suggestions could then be followed concerning type of shoes to be worn, special education if necessary, amount of activity needed, academic load to be carried, and other procedures which would influence the social, emotional and physical health status of each child. Referrals to dentists and other specialists could also be made by the family doctor. Neighborhood clinics were suggested as an alternative for families unable to form a professional contact with a family physician.

Happy experiences. Happiness held a prominent place among factors influencing the total well-being of individuals. Media through which happiness could be secured showed varied interests and desires. Outward manifestations of success, pride, social approval, security, and the reverse of these and other factors were considered important. The range of such media was from the very fat boy who gained respect and recognition for his championship at Do Do, to the shy foreign child, who was asked to bring her mother to school to help her associates understand the social and political situation. Happiness was acknowledged as having unlimited therapeutic value. A child's appearance and walk was discussed as being very different as he left a classroom with high approval registered on a report card, from his appearance and walk as he left the classroom with a report card indicating failure. Happiness is a goal within the reach of every child, and unlimited are its influences on the total health status when realized.

Welfare, Family Life and Recreation groups worked with Fathers' Clubs, Special departments and school personnel on providing situations which will bring happiness in its many forms to the children in this school and community.

Well balanced health and physical education program of games, rhythms, and self-testing activities. Apparatus work included activities on equipment such as poles, ropes, rings, ladders, and bars, giving an opportunity to boys and girls to increase their strength, agility and stamina. Rhythms included creative, folk, square and social dancing, which emphasized timing, poise, coordination and agility. Games dominated the program by including indoor and outdoor activities, which could be enjoyed in the gymnasium, in the classroom, on the playground, at home, in large groups or with one team mate. The experiences in physical activities were educational, enjoyable, varied and satisfying.

This school has a well equipped gymnasium and a moderate playground space. The all-weather hard surfaced playground has circles, diamonds and courts painted for the specific needs of different age-grade groups and members of the community who believe in a daily, well-balanced physical activity program.

Environmental improvements. Environmental improvements, such as acoustical ceilings to eliminate noise, indirect lighting giving at least 50 footcandle light to each child, regardless of his position in the classroom, even temperature near 73 degrees with a relative humidity conducive to health and comfort, ventilated cloakrooms, light colored walls and ceilings, and enclosed wastepaper containers were recommended.

A careful study of the nutritional status of boys and girls. Food eaten by boys and girls was recognized as having such important influence on their well-being that it was suggested that a careful study be made of eating habits at school and at home. Such a study has begun and the findings of the study should effect changes.

The suggestions which have just been reviewed represent a limited number of those given by planning groups. Posture has been considered as a two-way mirror reflecting causes and results. Plans for securing straight children have departed from the exercise approach as the only medium.

A posture program must be educational and requires the same careful, co-operative planning that all curricular activities deserve to have. Good posture is obtainable, but good posture is too inclusive to be secured through one approach. Good posture is an invaluable asset in terms of health, appearance, efficiency, and happiness, *and* merits the professional attention of all educators.

MENTAL HEALTH THROUGH EDUCATION

by PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS

Is the testing, marking, and promotion system injurious to mental health? Is grouping a violation of the principles of mental hygiene? Do teaching methods and the instructional program tend to have bad effects upon the mental health of students? What weight is to be given to the attitudes of teachers and parents as factors in building mental health? These are some of the important questions discussed in this challenging article. The author is Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The mental hygiene program of a school is commonly thought to concern itself principally with the school clinic which studies pupils with adjustment problems, makes recommendations concerning them, and perhaps carries on its own program of psychotherapy. Actually, however, this is a narrow and limited point of view with regard to the implications of mental hygiene for education. Every aspect of the organization of a school—the program of studies and the methods of instruction and the classification and grouping of pupils, the social life as well as the mechanics of the school itself—has its mental hygiene significance.

WHAT IS MENTAL HYGIENE?

Before the mental hygiene program of the school is discussed, what is meant by mental hygiene must be defined and made clear. Mental hygiene has two aspects—one the social, the other the individual. We may say that one criterion of mental health in an individual is that he should function adequately. With regard to children in school, this means that they should be making satisfactory progress with their school activities, that they should be acceptable as good citizens in the school community, that they should have good relationships with other pupils and members of the school staff, and that they should have adequate emotional expression. On the individual side, mental health implies individual security and happiness. Mental health, like physical health, implies a positive condition of enthusiasm, self-esteem, self-confidence, and emotional stability. It is clearer, however, to define mental health in terms of what it is not. Mental health involves freedom from crippling anxieties, feelings of inferiority and inadequacy, undue guilt, and distressing conflicts.

The mental hygiene program of the school would involve at least seven areas of education: (1) the organization of the school program; (2) the curriculum; (3) the organization of groups; (4) teaching methods; (5) the social program of the school; (6) the guidance program; and (7) special clinical services. A brief comment on each of these seven aspects of education may indicate in what way they are responsible for the mental health of pupils.

THE SCHOOL PROGRAM AND MENTAL HEALTH

The school itself should be organized in such a way that pupils are not handicapped or threatened by fatigue or poor working conditions. The length of the school year, the length of the school day and the length of the school period must on the one hand provide optimum conditions for learning, and on the other, avoid unnecessary strain or fatigue. Recesses, lunch periods, the alternation of desk work and manual arts or physical activities, the adjustment of seats, lighting and ventilation, the make-up of textbooks, the tempo of the class period, and pupil and teacher load are all important factors in the organization of a school which can contribute to a pupil's efficiency or can place unnecessary threat and strain on him.

The curriculum has important mental hygiene implications. If subject matter is unrelated to the maturity and interests of children, learning exercises may easily become meaningless, dry and difficult. The school can be approached with enthusiasm only when the courses, subject matter and activities of the school are related to the pupil's development and his need to adapt himself to his social group.

MENTAL HYGIENE AND THE PROBLEM OF GROUPING.

The grouping, grading, and sectioning of pupils in schools has important mental hygiene implications which will be discussed at greater length in order to illustrate how grouping impinges on the mental health of pupils. As long as education is conducted in classes there will be the problem of how pupils should be grouped. After many years of experience and discussion with regard to this problem, it has finally become clear that the method of grouping in and of itself has little educational value. What counts is what is done in groups of differing complexion and the attitude held by the community toward groups. No method of grouping has an advantage over any other method whether it is ability grouping or grouping pupils according to chronological age, if all groups are treated alike. The advantages and disadvantages of grouping are to be found in the way in which groups are treated.

By and large, it is the attitude which teachers, parents and the community at large take toward groups that determines the influence that any particular system of grouping has, and not the grouping itself. If pupils are grouped according to ability and teachers cast aspersion on the lowest group the result cannot be other than harmful. To be in the upper group is a sign of esteem and to be in the lower group a disgrace. Teachers judge themselves when they judge the grouping in the school. When a teacher speaks approvingly of the upper sections and disparagingly of the lower sections, she has already identified herself with the upper group and is stating that she finds her own security by allying herself with the superior pupils.

There is a debatable question as to where differences in ability are most discernible. There are some who believe that these differences become most clear to a pupil when classes within a school are differentiated on the basis of ability. However, unless these differences are emphasized by teachers, parents and others, it is doubtful if pupils would know themselves, at least with any degree of clearness, the extent to which their own group differs from that of another group. On the other hand, with groups heterogeneous in ability, differences between pupils in a class become clearly apparent as they are displayed in the daily life of the classroom. The common belief that ability grouping makes for a feeling of difference reflects the common tendency of teachers to emphasize the differences between groups.

It is commonly said that slow children need the encouragement, the challenge and stimulation of brighter pupils and this is often brought forward as an argument in favor of heterogeneous grouping. The evidence for this point of view, however, is by no means clear. Again experience points to the fact that the motivation of pupils in a class comes not so much from competition with classmates as from the attitude which the teacher takes toward the work of the class and methods that she uses in stimulating achievement. Certainly the slow pupil has every reason to become discouraged when he is in competition with pupils so much more mature and gifted than he is that he feels he does not have a chance whereas competition may be more realistic when he is with others nearer his own stage of development.

The question of democracy always arises in every discussion of grouping. It is true that if pupils are grouped by ability, the result will be a class grouping. Pupils in the higher sections will come from the more favored residential sections of a city while pupils in the poorer sections will come from "across the tracks" from a lower economic and social level. One of the main arguments against ability grouping arises from this fact and the wish to minimize class distinctions in school. Then again, any form of grouping raises the question of the denial of opportunity. It is true that a child assigned to a slower section is not given the opportunity of entering certain activities and using certain materials that pupils in brighter sections are given. There are two sides to this issue. On the one hand, there is no reason why children in the slower sections should be denied an opportunity of learning of the world about them, of appreciating the United Nations, of becoming acquainted with scientific phenomena, and having contact with some of the world's great literature. On the other hand, if there are differences in progress in reading, and other tool subjects, some children would be handicapped by being forced to use books which are beyond their level of comprehension, while other pupils would be equally handicapped by being forced to use books for which they are too mature.

There is no doubt but that a greater efficiency in groups can be obtained when there is some differentiation on the basis of ability. Swimming instruction would be handicapped if some members of a class are beginners who need to practice swimming across the pool and others at a more advanced stage wish to swim the length of the pool. If class instruction is to be a group process, it helps if the skills of the members of the class are enough alike so that they can use the same reading material, charts and apparatus. On the other hand, because of the social distinctions and feelings of difference which these differentiated groups inevitably evoke, differentiation of subject matter within a class has been many times recommended. The writer's observation is that for many activities this results in work of a highly individual nature, using workbooks and other devices by which each child can proceed at his own rate. The class comes together as a social unit only in those activities in which all can participate. Even where the work is on a unit or project basis in a heterogeneous group each child contributes according to his level of development so that it is only in part a group process.

The mental hygiene implications of grouping pertain particularly to the attitudes that pupils develop as a result of the grouping. There is no one method of grouping that seems to be entirely satisfactory, and as a result, schools are constantly oscillating back and forth between a more homogeneous and a more heterogeneous type of grouping. When all is said and done, the effect on the pupil depends more on the attitude of his teacher and the particular composition of the group seems to be of lesser importance.

The question of grouping extends to the problem of special classes. There is no doubt but that from the point of view of efficiency many children may be helped to overcome special handicaps, both mental and physical, if they can be placed in special classes where full attention can be given to their needs. However, in recent years, the mental hygiene implications of these special classes have been studied and there is a belief that, all things being considered,

pupils may be helped to all around development better by being left in the regular classes with normal pupils. Here again, however, the issue is not so much one of the group in which a pupil is placed, as the attitude which his teacher takes toward him.

METHODS OF TEACHING AFFECT MENTAL HEALTH.

Probably the heart of the mental health in a school is to be found in the methods of teaching employed. Education has learned much in recent years from developments in psychotherapy and many modern principles of teacher-pupil relationship are those which have developed out of psychotherapeutic experience. Nothing is more important for the mental health of school children than the attitude of the teacher and the teacher-pupil relationships are perhaps the core of the whole educational problem as regards mental health. Psychotherapy has also given education new points of view with regard to discipline. Teachers find that they can afford to be more accepting and also more permissive of pupils, resulting in better pupil attitudes. A good teacher does not even find that disciplinary problems arise. She has focussed her attention on a meaningful and realistic program and carries the children along with her in this program. Usually where there are disciplinary problems we find personal inadequacies and insecurity in the teacher which indicate that the discipline is a matter of teacher-pupil relationship.

Tests and marks are one phase of instruction which have important mental hygiene implications. Because tests frequently are threatening and anxiety-provoking, many teachers have reached the conclusion that tests should be discarded and that marks in the traditional fashion should no longer be given. However, it must be recognized that no one is born with an inherent fear of tests. The fear of tests comes through experience and is caused by the attitudes that teachers and parents have taken toward the tests and because the outcomes of tests are held to be of such peculiar importance. I am sure that putting a challenge to a child in and of itself is not a threat to the child's mental health. Every child accepts a challenge whenever he enters a contest or plays a game. Accepting a challenge in this sense seems to be conducive to good mental health as found in the experiences on the playground.

The threat to a child from a test comes from the attitude that teachers and parents take toward the test results. If the child feels that he is to be disgraced if the test results are unsatisfactory, if he feels the threat of being rejected, the inevitable result is the arousal of anxiety, with the tests the focal point of the anxiety. If the school has a satisfactory guidance system, then children can be helped to look upon tests as revealing the state of their progress and can be assured that they will find a place in the educational ladder that is best for them.

Naturaly this is complicated by the necessity of holding caste with one's classmates, and of maintaining one's place with the group, but these are all matters of teacher-pupil relationship and should not be confused with the taking of tests themselves. The question of the kinds of reports to be sent to parents also has mental hygiene implications. Since parents value school progress so highly and since so many parents are unaware of the effect of their critical or threatening attitude, probably schools should take this factor into account and should report to parents as objectively as possible in a way that will enable the parent to work with his child rather than against him.

The guidance program assumes a very important role in the mental hygiene program of the school. Properly organized and directed, guidance ought to give pupils a sense of security by helping them to find their place in school where they can succeed and win approval of teachers, parents and classmates.

THE CLINIC IN A PROGRAM FOR MENTAL HEALTH

The clinic, then, takes a relatively minor role in the school's efforts toward mental health. The mental hygiene program of the school should be positive and prophylactic rather than remedial and corrective. To be sure some pupils with unfortunate home backgrounds bring to school twisted personalities and neurotic tendencies which interfere with their ability to fit into the school's program and to profit by the school's activities. Such pupils need special study and possibly special help. However, the large majority of pupils are reasonably well adjusted in the typical school and the emphasis on mental health for them should be the setting up of a program which is conducive to continued mental health.

The reader may have guessed that this writer believes that the heart and core of effective mental hygiene in the school rests with the teacher and is to be found in the teacher-pupil relationships. It is essential to mental health in a school that the teachers themselves should be normal, stable and undisturbed individuals. The anxious neurotic teacher cannot help but have an unfavorable influence on the emotional adjustments of members of her class. Over and over in this paper the attitude of the teacher has been stressed as of central importance. One can tolerate considerable variation in educational practice without untoward results if the teacher possesses healthy and constructive attitudes. Even an ideally organized school can have harmful effects on the children if the teachers are fault-finding, touchy, sadistic, and insecure. Perhaps the apex of the mental hygiene in a school is to be found in the school's principal. As the recognized leader, his own mental health and the attitude he takes toward all with whom he comes into contact necessarily determines the atmosphere of the school. Wise, tolerant and democratic administration inevitably percolates down so that it constructively influences the personality growth of every pupil.

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EXPERIENCE AS SUBJECT MATTER

by **HAROLD G. SHANE**

Experience is seen as the raw material of subject matter. Criteria are suggested for guiding learning through experience. Also a list of behavioral responses indicative of growth toward a set of socially desirable objectives, developed by the staff of the Winnetka Public schools, is set forth. The author is superintendent of Schools, Winnetka, Illinois.

In O. Henry's *The Ransom of Red Chief* Johnny Dorset deluged his kidnappers with questions. Why, he wanted to know, was Hank's nose red? Were the stars hot? Did the trees moving make the wind blow? Why were oranges round? Did oxen make any noise?[1]

After three days of questions and antics Hank and Sam, the kidnappers, paid Johnny's father to take him off *their* hands! They wanted no ransom, only riddance. In the thirty-eight years since Red Chief's ransom there are so many new things about which children may ask and about which they may learn; so many old things which should not be forgotten.

What shall we teach in this world that changes so rapidly? What shall be preserved from among the old? What shall be chosen from among the new? Every teacher as he meets his children somehow must find an answer to this question of what subject matter shall be.

This article, which reflects the views of a group of capable creative teachers, is dedicated to the proposition that children need experience for optimal personal growth and development. In the following paragraphs an attempt is made at examining this concept of experience as the raw material or basic ingredient of subject matter.

WHAT IS EXPERIENCE?

Anything that befalls a child is experience. Experience is actually living through an event; the skill or wisdom gained by personal experience. It follows that even the most unimaginative kind of drill work or rote learning is experience—of a sort. However, educationally significant experiences are not those which are planned for children; they are planned by children and teachers working together. And the good elementary school curriculum (the sum of these significant experiences) is one which (1) meets the test of socially desirable educational goals and (2) is based upon what is known about how children learn.

In working with children, the sensitive, creative teacher exercises a guidance function which continually finds its direction from the two points mentioned above, in her knowledge of the developmental needs of children, and in her ability to appraise the worth of experiences which carry children toward such goals through meeting their needs. The following paragraphs suggest some specific ways in which teachers can refine and control the quality of children's learning experiences.

SOME GOALS IN GUIDING CHILDREN'S EXPERIENCES

Goals or objectives in guiding experiences have been expressed in many ways. The following aims were evolved recently in the course of a year of study by the staff of the public schools of Winnetka, Illinois. They seem of particular interest in that they reflect an effort to analyze the components of *socially desirable educational goals* and to show the kinds of behavioral responses that indicate child growth, through experience, toward these goals. In the statements below, the specific components of the first three basic objectives are listed in the left-hand column, and the behavioral responses of children which indicate growth toward these objectives are listed in the right-hand column.

FIRST BASIC OBJECTIVE: *To develop devotion to democracy and insight into democratic values in a world matrix.*[2]

SPECIFIC COMPONENTS	*BEHAVIORAL RESPONSES*
To deepen and widen social identification.	WORKS cooperatively with others in a group.
To cultivate awareness of and concern for social problems created by: social,	PARTICIPATES in activities of his group.
	GIVES service, progressing from responding to requests

[1]From *Whirligigs*. New York: Doubleday, Page and Company, 1916, p. 102-103.

[2]Webster defines "matrix" as a place or enveloping element within which something orignates, takes form or develops.

political,
economic, and
technological changes.

To minimize prejudices.

To develop appreciation of others and respect for their rights.

To develop and encourage responsible freedom and expression. (A child is increasingly free to the degree to which self-responsibility is assumed.)

To recognize and develop leadership as a group function. (As each person contributes suggestions for the solution of a common problem, he is for the time being a leader.)

To cultivate the disposition to act courageously in accordance with one's convictions.

To develop convictions in the direction of more democratic values.

To improve the community through the operation of the school program.

To help children recognize as good those elements in our way of life that are democratic.

To give children experiences in the organizations and techniques of democratic social control and to encourage social inventiveness.

To develop faith in the aggregate ability of people to move toward socially desirable, democratic goals.
to
voluntarily assuming tasks.

SHARES in reaching decisions that affect the group and ASSUMES a fair portion of responsibility for carrying them through.

SHARES possessions and experiences with his group.

CONTRIBUTES to solving group problems through offering
ideas and
materials.

RESPONDS with more understanding toward an individual when the causes for his behavior are explained.

ABIDES by majority decisions.

SHOWS respect for the right of individuals to express minority opinions.

EXPRESSES appreciation for contributions of others.

EXPRESSES satisfaction in the accomplishments of his group.

DOES unsupervised work with increasing success.

APPRAISES new developments in terms of their inherent values rather than in terms of traditional habits and patterns of response and ideas.

SHOWS progressive improvement in acting courageously upon democratic convictions.

OPPOSES actions detrimental to the common welfare.

SHOWS concern about ways of improving the conditions of living together in widening social groups—family, play, class, school, community, etc.—and INITIATES action in bringing about such improvements.

INITIATES group discussion of problems of common concern.

SECOND BASIC OBJECTIVE: *To develop the child's personal adequacy and his feeling of personal adequacy in immediate social situations.*

SPECIFIC COMPONENTS

To aid the development of emotional and social maturity.

To foster the achievement of a sense of security and self-confidence.

To promote the attainment of virorous physical health and playground skills which contribute to group acceptance.

To develop in the child sufficient stability so that he will accept other people's achievements and rights to opinions and, at the same time, maintain his own integrity.

To encourage and to provide opportunity for sensitive expression of vital experiences.

To develop consciousness of purpose.

To develop the ability to use energy most efficiently in terms of purpose.

To encourage self-responsibility.

To build courage to the extent that the child will act in accordance with his convictions.

To aid the child in developing effective techniques for dealing with his peers.

BEHAVIORAL RESPONSES

WORKS independently with increasing success and decreasing supervision.

ASSUMES personal responsibility for his behavior and possessions.

ADAPTS easily to necessary changes in routine.

PROGRESSES toward consistent behavior in terms of values which he accepts.

PROGRESSES from self-interest behavior to mature democratic interaction.

MAINTAINS or quickly REGAINS equilibrium when over-stimulated or in a crisis situation.

ACCEPTS AND WELCOMES constructive criticism.

OFFERS pertinent suggestions to help others.

PARTICIPATES in physical activities acceptable to himself and the group.

RECONCILES individual desires and preferences to group decisions.

MAKES quantitative and qualitative gains in expressing experiences through an increasing variety of media.

THIRD BASIC OBJECTIVE: *To develop in children the ability to sense and to solve problems by thinking reflectively and scientifically.*

SPECIFIC COMPONENTS	*BEHAVIORAL RESPONSES*
To develop inquiring minds through encouraging questioning and a consequent search for answers.	SHOWS awareness of problems.
To develop skill in recognizing and in defining a problem.	ASKS thoughtful questions.
To develop skill in making pertinent suggestions as to possible solutions of a problem at the same time reserving final judgment while gathering and testing data.	RESERVES judgment until evidence is weighed.
To develop appreciation of desirability of finding and using facts as bases for evaluating judgments.	SEEKS facts relevant to problems.
To evolve and to use methods for assembling, testing, and continually evaluating evidence.	USES discrimination in selecting source material on which to base judgment.
To use evidence to find the best apparent solution to a problem.	CHANGES opinions in the light of more objective, valid, and reliable evidence than he had when forming them originally.
To act in accordance with scientifically drawn conclusions.	USES evidence to find best apparent solutions to problems.
	ACTS in accordance with scientifically drawn conclusions.

FOURTH BASIC OBJECTIVE: *To help children acquire the knowledge and to guide their growth toward skills which will implement the preceding objectives, and which will enable each child to become of greatest use to himself and to society.*[3]

Such expressions of value as those above are proposed as points of orientation in evaluating potential experiences to determine whether they shall have a place in the flexible, emergent school living of children.

EXPERIENCE AND THE NATURE OF LEARNING

The question of what experiences shall become subject matter is related to the ways in which children learn most effectively. It is suggested here that there are several principles of learning, recognized either directly or implicitly in the goals above. They should serve the teacher striving to decide which experiences among the infinite number that might be planned with a group of children have the greatest potential value.

A first principle is that *significant learning experiences build responsible self-direction and self-discipline.* In other words, experiences which constitute good subject matter should not only allow but encourage children to develop their own standards of group behavior. The subject matter of experience should help them to distinguish between ephemeral and long-range group goals to subordinate personal wants to social responsibility.

This principle further implies that in guiding group experience the teacher will restrict arbitrary, imposed discipline to situations involving health and safety, or to the protection of the group from capricious, irresponsible behavior of those children who have not yet learned to subordinate anarchistic whims to group welfare. At the same time the teacher will recognize that cure of the cause blocking cooperative behavior, rather than punishment, must be sought.

A second principle is that *learning is inherently creative.* The subject matter of experience must provide for creative expression through adventures with ideas, living that is emotionally rich (e.g., good literature, music, and creative dramatics), and contacts with the materials of the shop, laboratory, art room, and kitchen. Each child in the process should discover individual satisfaction through coming to do at least one thing distinctively well.

The fact that children grow up with others, not in a vacuum, points to yet another principle: *that learning occurs in a social setting.* This is recognized by the teacher who gears the activities of the school to the life of the community and its agencies, and in increasing measure helps the child to understand and to appreciate the interrelationships of local, national, and world social organization. Also, children are functioning members of a democratically organized school community and learn by living together responsibly.

Last, *learning is a dynamic and integrating experience.* Children learn after they have come to sense the need for a certain knowledge or skill which is understandable to them at their level of maturity, rather than because an assignment has been made by the teacher. The experiences of each child are concrete and active rather than abstract and passive. He "goes

[3]The specific components and behavioral responses of this objective are suggested in the *Curriculum Handbook* of the Winnetka Public Schools. This volume of over 500 pages is not a course of study but a catalogue of resources for learning experiences in a child development context. Cf. *Winnetka Curriculum Handbook* (Experimental Edition, Mimeographed), 1947.

after" what he feels he needs to know for reasons he accepts. And the learning is integrating; unifying to the child; enabling him better to meet the mental, emotional, and social problems of living. At the same time changes in the child, as he finds and tests the meanings[4] of his expanding environmental contacts, prepare him for further inquiries and understandings. Experience is his subject matter.

SOME CRITERIA FOR GUIDING LEARNING

There can be no pat answer to the query raised earlier, "What shall be our subject matter?" It is the teacher's values expressed as objectives, plus an understanding of how children learn that should in large measure determine the answer to the question.

The six criteria suggested here may prove useful to the teacher in reaching decisions with children as to which experiences shall be developed as classroom enterprises. A desirable learning experience:

Is consistent with the developmental level and satisfies the developmental needs of the group.

Fosters growth toward democratic insights and beliefs, social adequacy, clear and creative thinking, and socially useful skills and knowledges.

Promises to promote understanding of the community and to be of direct value to better community living.

Seems likely to help children develop positive and active attitudes toward important needs and elements in a concentrically widening environment, e. g., the need to conserve human and natural resources.

Recognizes realistically the limitations of available resources of time, space, and materials.

Offers children suitable opportunities for direct experience in the physical environment of the school and community.

The world is full to the bursting point with fascinating things big and small, known and unknown: smoke rising in twilight calm, the crackle of leaves in autumn, the foaming wakes of ships, chicken hearts that beat interminably in saline solutions, tasselling corn, telescopes that gather light older than the earth, belief in God.

Experiences in this world are the raw materials of subject matter. Seek them out with children.

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[4]Boyd H. Bode defines thinking as the finding and testing of meanings. Cf. *How We Learn.* Boston: D. C. Health and Company, 1940, Pp. 250-251.

IN DEFENSE OF THE NEW AEF POLICY

by **WILLIAM H. FISHER**

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A reply to criticisms of the new AEF policy. The author is a member of the department of Education, Eastern State College of Education, Cheney, Washington.

Lester Ball and Harold Shane subjected the new policy of the American Education Fellowship to critical review in the April, 1948, issue of *Progressive Education.* These writers raised questions which are pertinent to the AEF program and to the progressive education movement, generally. Because the arguments put forward by Ball and Shane are representative of the reactions of certain leaders in education, their theses are worth answering.

A principal cause for the writers' concern centered in the notion that implicit in the new program is a dogmatism which is foreign to the pragmatic approach of the genuine educational progressive. Counter to this, I would like to point out that the pragmatists or "instrumentalists" have, within recent years, concentrated more and more on societal forces which affect education. This, of course, doesn't mean that they have lost sight of the importance of a kind of "methodology" consistent with pro-democratic social and economic goals.

But the crux of the answer to the aforementioned writers goes deeper, and takes me into the realm of downright heresy. In short, it is time—past time—that we got over the belief that those educational leaders who founded the progressive education movement in this country have a monopoly on its philosophical foundations. True, pragmatism is at essential variance with any social dogma, and in this sense, it has vastly contributed to an expanding concept of democracy.

ARE PROGRESSIVES MAKING METHOD A FETISH?

At the same time, in the emphasis of certain progressives upon "the approach," the means rather than the end, and the method, they have come dangerously close to making of these a fetish. Their own dogma encompasses what amounts to a kind of cynicism. It inclines them to question those individuals who wage a real, a flank attack, upon the evils of society.

It should be noted that this attitude is especially characteristic of those progressives who have come upon the scent of a "red." Let any program, in their belief, too closely approximate that of the Com-

munists, or let the protagonists of such a program cooperate with anyone, including Communists, who supports the common cause, and these progressives will raise a howl that resounds to the heavens. It may, therefore, be said that basic to the issue at hand is whether those who refuse to touch a "red" with the proverbial ten foot pole are serving the cause of liberalism in education, or simply rendering themselves socially ineffective.

WHAT ABOUT RUSSIA?

Another point raised by Ball and Shane is related to their first one. Its kernel is represented in this statement, a quote from them, in context: "The continuation of police state methods, within Russia, the Machiavellian twists and turns of her foreign policy, the continuation in power of a ruling elite, indicate to many leaders in liberal education that reconciliation of the values of democracy and Russian totalitarianism is impossible."

It is fair to assume that the word "impossible" as used by the writers meant exactly what it said. As used, "impossible" carried no qualifying connotation. What, then, is the logical implication of this word as Ball and Shane used it?

It means that the writers, and others like them inside and outside of education, are brought face to face with certain alternatives. Logically, one of these alternatives must be found in the unrealistic wish that the Stalinist regime in Russia will, in the forseeable future, be replaced with a regime holding ideals more closely akin to those espoused (but not always practiced) by the western democracies.

Another alternative must incline the writers toward support of the Marshall Plan, and more particularly, the political counterpart of this plan, the so-called "Truman Doctrine." It would seem that under the terms of this doctrine, our government stands ready to support, within the realm of financial possibility, almost any type of regime which has demonstrated its willingness to carry on the anti-Communist crusade. It is, perhaps, pertinent to ask whether this approach is consistent with progressive theory, a viewpoint which has insisted that means and ends need to be consistent.

Is it not legitimate, however, in returning to the basic point, to ask what real hope for peace can be found within the Truman Doctrine? A corollary of the doctrine must be that the best which the present generation may hope for on the world horizon is a period of armed truce. This should not be confused with peace. To accept the Truman Doctrine—it may change; this is written in December, 1948—should incline one toward the support of Universal Military Training and other plans which seem to be relevant to keeping the armed truce.

Of course, there is a final alternative which can be chosen and supported by those who believe that it is "impossible" for American democracy to co-exist in a peaceful, freedom-loving world with "Soviet totalitarianism." This final one is, of course, war itself. Ball and Shane would probably deny that they must choose any of these alternatives. If so, they remind me of a talk I heard not so long ago in which the speaker spent twenty-five minutes of a thirty minute lecture decrying the Soviets and all for which they stand, and then spent five minutes (it was in a church) virtually praying to almighty God for peace. Needless to say, I was not impressed with his logic.

It is to the credit of the present leadership of the American Education Fellowship that, at the risk of being called "red," it has refused to acquiesce in any of the alternatives above depicted. Apparently, this leadership while by *no means* condoning every act of the government of Soviet Russia, believes that an agreement between the Soviet and American powers can be reached in the interest of promoting real and enduring world peace. The AEF leaders, if I interpret the new program correctly, also seem to think that such an agreement is attainable without a social revolution taking place in either land.

Soviet socialism and American capitalism are apt to remain for some time to come, and those who hope and work realistically for enduring peace have recognized this fact. They also believe, it is fair to assume, that the duplicity which has characterized the relations between the Soviets and the western powers has *not* been limited to the Russians. I rise to support this viewpoint.

CAN THE LIBERALS STICK TOGETHER

The other points developed by Ball and Shane show, on their part, a genuine concern lest the new AEF policy lead to a rift in the ranks of educational liberals. In answer to this, I would like to say that there should be no reason why the discussion, adoption, and enunciation of a new society-centered program of action will lead to the disintegration of this organization or a split in the ranks of the progressives in education.

When it finally arrived, the change in policy of the AEF was long overdue. That which had been best in the methodological or "child-centered" orientation of the early days of progressive education, had been or was in process of being accepted in practical form by a myriad of educators in organizations composed of them. Indeed, as all members of the AEF should be more than pleased to admit, " progressive education" has ceased to have any great distinctive flavor precisely because so many teachers and educational administrators, without labeling them, have given implementation to many of the earlier contributions of Dewey, Kilpatrick, et. al.

With its singularly significant background, I could see no excuse for the continued existence of the AEF unless it remained true to its pioneering tradition. This should certainly incline the AEF leadership and members to embark upon new ventures. The objective fact is that for education, the frontier today lies in the realm of social, political, and economic conflict. The school, like it or not, cannot escape the new conditions. Why not face it? Why not do something about it? Insofar as the AEF has given birth to a new policy, it has offered leadership to educators at a time when they are in dire need of leadership.

It should, finally, be said that to my knowledge, there has been nary a single word spoken or written by any leader of the new policy which could imply that he believes any member who cannot support the program should drop his membership in the AEF. Criticism which has, as Ball and Shane pointed out, thrived in the past, in the future should be not only tolerated but fully encouraged. Would Ball and Shane assert that those who formulated the new policy should have ceased their efforts before these came to fruition simply because the proposing of a new policy inevitably meant criticism of it from within the ranks?

There have been a few members of the AEF who have implied that since they really cannot support the new program, they might just as well quit the organization. A reconsideration of this program as it has been published in *Progressive Education* has convinced me that such persons read much more of a leftist nature into it than is actually there. Nevertheless, their attitude strikes me as being akin to the one hung upon the so-called "totalitarian liberals" by their critics: "If we cannot control an organization, we won't belong to it!"

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THE NATION CASE

by **ARCHIBALD W. ANDERSON**
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On June 8, 1948, the Board of Superintendents of the New York City school system eliminated *The Nation* from the official list of periodicals approved for libraries in the public high schools of the city. This action precipitated a controversy, not yet settled, which has been marked by a considerable amount of bitterness and confusion.

The educator who lives away from the scene of conflict, and who is dependent upon occasional and partial accounts in newspapers and magazines for information, frequently has had difficulty in learning what the exact nature of the controversy is. The judgment which the individual educator ultimately makes about the action of the Board of Superintendents will, of course, be colored by many things: the facts in the case, the interpretation and relative weight he attaches to the facts, his social philosophy, the functions he considers appropriate or essential for education to carry on, and others. These various matters will have significance in affecting ultimate judgment only as they are brought to bear upon the basic issues at stake. Clarity about such issues, therefore, is a primary requisite for intelligent judgment. Unfortunately, just what these basic issues are is itself a matter of controversy.

The issues as seen by the Board of Superintendents are presented in a printed pamphlet, *Should Religious Beliefs Be Studied and Criticized in an American Public High School?,* written by William Jansen, Superintendent of Schools, City of New York, and issued by the Board of Superintendents on October 1, 1948.[1] The intent of this pamphlet is "to do away with the misrepresentations and evasions that have prevented the friends of public education from seeing the real issue".[2]

The issues as seen by those on the other side of the controversy are presented in a *Brief Amicus Curiae,* submitted to the Commissioner of Education of New York State by Archibald MacLeish on behalf of "a Number of Individuals and Organizations Who Have Protested the Action of the Board of Superintendents in This Case".[3] This statement also is intended to clarify the "real issue" and to counter efforts to confuse it or to raise false issues.[4]

These two documents are in fundamental disagreement as to what issues are raised by the action of the Board of Superintendents in banning *The Nation.* The teaching profession, however, cannot afford to let the matter thus rest in confusion. It is obvious that when reading materials are excluded from school libraries fundamental questions of educational and public policy are involved. These questions go deeper than the specific incident and have wider implications than the selection of library materials. They are questions having to do with the role of education in a democracy, the methods and materials for carrying on that education, the bases for selecting such methods and materials, and the agencies of selection. These questions are of vital importance to the teaching profession because the answers to them define the function of the profession in our society. In an effort to throw light upon these more fundamental questions,

[1] In subsequent footnotes this pamphlet will be cited simply as *Jansen.*

[2] *Jansen,* p. 12.

[3] In subsequent footnotes this brief will be cited simply as *MacLeish.*

[4] *MacLeish,* p. 3.

as well as upon the specific issues in the present case, the remainder of this article is devoted to an analysis of the points of disagreement in the two documents containing the statements of the parties to the controversy.

THE GENESIS OF THE CONTROVERSY.

Between November 1, 1947, and June 5, 1948, *The Nation* published a series of articles on the Catholic Church written by Paul Blanshard. Because one factor in the controversy is the charge that opponents to the banning of *The Nation* have suppressed the titles of some articles in describing the series,[5] the complete lists of titles is given here: 1. "The Roman Catholic Church in Medicine"; 2. "The Sexual Code of the Roman Catholic Church"; 3. "The Roman Catholic Church and the Schools"; 4. "The Roman Catholic Church and Fascism"; 5. The Roman Catholic Church and Fascism"; 6. "The Roman Catholic Church and Fascism"; 7. "Roman Catholic Censorship"; 8. "Roman Catholic Censorship"; 9. "Roman Catholic Science I. Relics, Saints, and Miracles"; 10. "Roman Catholic Science II. Apparitions and Evolution"; 11. "The Catholic Church and American Democracy"; 12. "The Catholic Church and American Democracy".

On April 20, 1948, the Board of Superintendents discussed the articles which had appeared by that date. Because it felt that Blanshard had gone beyond the discussion of the topics indicated by the titles to articles 1 through 5 and had "introduced a discussion of religious questions", the Board authorized high school principals "to withdraw from circulation any issue containing criticism of religious practices".[6] After another discussion on June 1, the Board voted, on June 8, to eliminate *The Nation* from the list of approved publications on the grounds that articles 9 and 10 ".....did *not* deal with the policies of the Roman Catholic Church with respect to public questions. Those two articles are devoted to a criticism of Catholic beliefs, dogmas, and religious practices. Catholic beliefs and religious practices are not only criticized but are ridiculed by innuendo".[7]

When the Board's action became publicly known, a temporary "Ad Hoc Committee" was established for the purpose of opposing the ban. This committee which represented 34 organizations and 72 individuals, issued a statement of its position entitled *An Appeal to Reason and Conscience*.[8] One hundred and seven persons authorized the use of their names as signers of the *Appeal* and 56 others later endorsed it. The total group has been characterized as follows:

> Included are a former President of the New York Board of Education who is also one of the leaders of the New York Bar; eight of the country's leading lawyers: among them the acknowledged American authority on freedom of the press; five Professors of Law; the country's foremost theologian; a former Under-Secretary of State; twenty-one presidents of universities and institutions of higher learning; seventeen Professors, including four historians; twenty-one religious leaders of various denominations including six Bishops; nineteen writers of established reputation; seven educators; seventeen editors and publishers.[9]

In reply, the Superintendent of Schools submitted the statement already mentioned to the signers on the grounds that the case had been misrepresented and that they had signed the *Appeal* in ignorance of the facts or under a misapprehension.[10] He invited them to read his justification and to communicate with him. The temporary committee seconded this invitation and assisted in circulating the Superintendent's statement. So far as is known, none of the signers or endorsers of the protest altered his view as a result of the Superintendent's statement, and of the 33 who are known to have communicated with him, all reaffirmed their previous position.[11] It was after these events that MacLeish prepared his *Brief Amicus Curiae* for submission to the New York State Commissioner of Education in support of the appeal which the publishers of *The Nation* had made to that official.

CONFLICTING STATEMENTS OF THE BASIC ISSUE.

The basic issue as seen by the Superintendent of Schools apparently is indicated by the title of his statement:

> "Should Religious Beliefs Be Studied And Criticized In An American Public High School?"[12]

The basic issue as seen in the *Brief Amicus Curiae* is presented as follows:

> The issue in this case is unusually clear and simple. It is: whether the action of the Board of Superintendents in excluding *The Nation* in the future from the high school libraries of the City of New York because *The Nation* had published in the past certain statements critical of the Catholic Church is or is not justifiable."[13]

It seems clear that these two statements of the issue are not focussed on the same question. Which, if either, of the two statements lies closer to the heart of the controversy can be determined only after a fuller exploration of the positions presented in the two documents with which this article is concerned.

[5] *Jansen*, p. 7.
[6] *Jansen*, pp. 5-6.
[7] *Jansen*, p. 7.
[8] *MacLeish*, p. 1.
[9] *MacLeish*, p. 2.
[10] *MacLeish*, p. 2.
[11] *MacLeish*, pp. 2-3.
[12] *Jansen*, p. 3, *et passim*.
[13] *MacLeish*, p. 3.

It may be helpful, as a step in the direction of greater clarity about the basic issue, to see what the controversy is not about.

THE ISSUE IS NOT ONE BETWEEN CATHOLICS AND NON-CATHOLICS.

There is a clear implication in Jansen's statement that he feels that at least part of the protest was due to the mistaken belief that the Board's action was Catholic-inspired and was intended to protect the Catholic Church from all types of criticism. MacLeish's *Brief,* on the other hand, agrees that the Catholic Church did not take a part in the banning of *The Nation;* but he is equally insistent that the opposition to the ban was not inspired by hostility to the Catholic faith. There is, therefore, a general agreement between the two documents that, whatever else the controversy may be about, it is not over the question of Catholicism versus Anti-Catholicism. Pertinent quotations from both documents are presented below.

From the statement by the Superintendent of Schools:

> Readers of *The Nation* know that for years there have appeared in *The Nation* criticisms of the Catholic Church or the Catholic hierarchy for its stand or policy with respect to a number of problems. . . .
>
> *During all the years that these criticisms appeared in the columns of* The Nation *the Board of Superintendents took no action whatsoever concerning them, nor were* The Nation's *editorial policies so much as discussed by the Board of Superintendents.*
>
> It is obvious that these facts have an important bearing on the present controversy. *They constitute a prima-facie case for the pronouncement of the Board of Superintendents that* The Nation *was not eliminated because it criticized the political and social policies of the Roman Catholic Church.* It is taken for granted that when the Catholic hierarchy or any other organization takes a stand on public issues, its policies and points of view are open to legitimate criticism. . . .
>
> *Throughout all the years in which criticism of Catholic policies appeared in* The Nation, *the Catholic hierarchy did not try to influence the Board of Superintendents. It is a fact that neither directly nor indirectly has a single member of the Board of Superintendents been asked by anyone representing or pretending to represent the hierarchy, to eliminate* The Nation."[14]

From the *Brief Amicus Curiae*:

> "Clear and simple as the issue is, however, efforts have been made to confuse it. One, and the most unworthy, is the effort to suggest or imply that the issue is really one between Catholics and non-Catholics. It is not— as *The Appeal to Reason and Conscience* makes clear. There are Catholics among those who have protested the action of the Board, and none of the signers, as the *Appeal* declares, "have been moved to protest by reason of hostility to the Catholic faith." The Superintendent has insisted, and certainly with reason, that the Catholic Church took no part in the imposition of the ban on *The Nation.* There is no reason to suppose that representatives of that Church approve the ban any more than representatives of other churches.[15]

IS THE STUDY OF RELIGIOUS CONTROVERSY AN ISSUE?

The statement by Superintendent Jansen gives grounds for believing that the Board of Superintendents feels that the question of whether religious controversy should be studied in school is one of the issues in the controversy. This is implied by the title of the Superintendent's statement. It is more explicitly stated in the sentence, "The Board of Superintendents is of the opinion that it is contrary to the American public-school tradition to bring religious controversies into the classrooms of the public schools."[16]

MacLeish and those associated with him reject this as a valid issue. The *Brief* states:

> "The second effort to cloud the issue has been made by those who have attempted to confuse the real question in litigation with the wholly unrelated question of the teaching of religious controversy in schools. The Superintendent himself has been primarily responsible for this distortion. This effort to substitute a straw man for the real figure in the controversy was sharply challenged by three of those who accepted the Superintendent's invitation to comment on his defense of the Board's action."[17]

MacLeish quotes from a letter by Lewis Mumford, who after quoting the title of Jansen's statement, says:

> That is possibly a very important question; but it has nothing whatever to do with *The Nation* articles or with school libraries. *The Nation* is not a textbook; nor were the articles on the Roman Catholic Church required reading in any public school classes; nor did Mr. Blanshard, the author of these articles, propose that religious beliefs should be studied and criticized in our public schools. Hence your question is worse than irrelevant: for it can serve no other purpose than to mislead the casual reader on the question at issue.[18]

[14] *Jansen,* pp. 4-5.
[15] *MacLeish,* pp. 3-4.
[16] *Jansen,* pp. 7-8.
[17] *MacLeish,* p. 4.
[18] *MacLeish,* p. 5

IS CENSORSHIP OF THE PRESS AN ISSUE?

The quotation from Jansen's statement already presented in the section of this article entitled, "The Genesis of the Controversy", indicated that *The Nation* was banned because of the two articles dealing with "Roman Catholic Science". The statement quoted a number of passages from the articles in support of the contention that they were critical of religious beliefs and practices. It is on the basis of this contention that the Board claims justification for banning the magazine rather than withdrawing the particular issues in which the articles appeared:

> "The question of whether or not to adhere to this policy was discussed in the Board of Superintendents. It was decided that this policy of withdrawing single issues could no longer apply in the case of *The Nation.* It was obvious that, with the publication of the two articles referred to, the editorial policy of *The Nation* had been modified to permit the publication of articles that are an attack on the Catholic religion.
>
> If, after the publication of these two articles, *The Nation* were continued on the list of authorized publications, the Board of Superintendents would have to direct the principal of each school subscribing to have each issue of *The Nation* reviewed before permitting its circulation in the library. The Board of Superintendents does not care to list publications that require a scrutiny of this kind.[19]

Jansen defended this action of the Board from the charge of censorship on the grounds that the Board was exercising its right and duty to supervise the reading material of pupils:

> "It was to be expected that the cry of censorship would be raised. The term is useful for name-calling purposes. But obviously, the Board of Superintendents does not want to censor *The Nation.* As far as the Board is concerned, the editor of *The Nation must not permit herself to believe that* she will determine what shall be read in the high schools of New York City. It is the Board of Superintendents that has the legal responsibility and duty to determine what books and magazines are to be used. If this is censorship, then well and good.
>
> Every responsible citizen realizes that somewhere in a school system, large or small, there must be placed squarely on the shoulders of an individual or of members of a board, the difficult business of selecting reading material for the students. The only fair demand the public can make is that the responsible individual state what standards he applies in making his decisions. Such standards were promulgated some time ago by the Board of Superintendents. Two of these standards stated in question form read as follows:
>
> Does the book contain any derogatory statements concerning racial or religious groups? Does the book contain matter which is so interwoven into the text as to give rise to misunderstanding and prejudice?"[20]

These statements by Jansen deal with two major questions: (1) Whether the elimination of a magazine from school libraries constitutes censorship of the press; and (2) whether the printing of religious criticism is an adequate basis for such elimination. The statements from MacLeish's *Brief* dealing with the first question will be presented in this section of the present article. Those dealing with the second question will be presented in the next section.

MacLeish regards the action of the Board as an unjustifiable act of censorship and sees in it a threat to freedom of the press. Because of space limitations, it is impossible to present his statement in its entirety but the following paragraphs give the gist of his position:[21]

> "In his defense of the Board's action, the Superintendent of Schools attempts to justify the exclusion from high school libraries of future issues of *The Nation* on the ground that *The Nation* published twenty-one sentences which he finds objectionable and which he quotes. *The Nation* was founded in 1865. It has been published continuously ever since. It has a long record of serious, and, most of us think, responsible and distinguished journalism. It has been available to students in the high school libraries of New York City since 1937. But because twenty-one sentences which the Board finds objectionable were published in two articles it is now stigmatized as no longer fit to be read by high school students, and future issues are ordered excluded. It is a serious thing to stigmatize a publication as unfit for use by students in public schools. A precedent which would permit public officials, in their wholly extra-judicial discretion, thus to punish a periodical, a newspaper or a publishing house for a specific past publication involves, as we declared in our *Appeal,* a grant of 'a power of intimidation and possible blackmail..... which no free society can tolerate and which a free press could not long survive.' From the suppression of *The Nation* for publishing twenty-one sentences which the Board finds objectionable, to the suppression of the *New York Times* or the *New York Mirror* or the *New York Star* for the publication of twenty-one sentences—or nineteen, or twelve or seven or one—is not a long step.

[19] *Jansen,* p. 8.
[20] *Jansen,* p. 11.
[21] *Macleish,* pp. 6-8.

There is no reason why so dangerous a rule should have been adopted by the Board in the first place, and even less why it should be now approved. Nothing is more firmly established by the courts than the contrary rule that the suppression of a publication, for whatever reason, can only be justified on the basis of *a consideration of the publication as a whole.* The fact that the standards of selection for high school libraries differ in certain ways from the standards of selection for general libraries does not mean that civil rights can be disregarded in high school libraries, that the rights of authors and publishers cease to exist, that the rights of readers may be disregarded or that capricious and arbitrary action can be justified. It is as important to preserve the institutions of a free society in the schools as elsewhere. . . .

IS THE CRITICISM OF RELIGIOUS BELIEFS AN ISSUE?

The quotations from Jansen's statement already presented make clear that he and the Board of Superintendents regard the question of whether religious beliefs have been questioned as one of the fundamental issues in the controversy. Furthermore, they have explicitly stated that the publishing of such criticism is a valid basis for keeping periodicals or other materials out of the schools.

MacLeish and others whom he quotes in his *Brief* have approached this question of the place, or lack of place, of religious criticism in schools in several ways. MacLeish, himself, has taken the position that the basis of the exclusion, as stated, is too sweeping and would have undesirable and unexpected effects:[22]

"Since the word 'criticism' is not qualified, the intention must be understood to be to exclude from New York City school libraries henceforward all books, periodicals and newspapers which contain criticism of religious beliefs of any kind, whether true or false, whether responsible or irresponsible, whether honest or partisan.

It is difficult to believe that this threatening and intemperate statement was carefully weighed or fully understood by its author. We have indicated in our *Appeal to Reason and Conscience* what the effect of such a ruling would be in the fields of literature and history. Not only would the whole American Puritan tradition vanish from the shelves of high school libraries but the founders of the Republic themselves would be bowdlerized or silenced."

Some of those whose letters are quoted by MacLeish raise the questions of (1) just how "criticism of religious beliefs" is to be defined, and (2) whether the examination of such criticism is not, after all, a part of the educative process. The following two quotations are typical of this approach:[23]

Alexander Meiklejohn, former President of Amherst College, philosopher and educator:

"I fully agree with your contention that exclusion of a book from a reading list may not be an act of censorship. . . . But your action against The Nation, taken on the grounds which you give is, I, am sure, censorship in an objectionable sense. . . .

First, in the field of education, the fact that reading contains 'derogatory statements concerning racial or religious groups' does not give proper ground for exclusion. The purpose of education is not served by keeping such groups free from legitimate and reasonable criticism. The meeting of such criticism, whether of one's own beliefs or those of others, is an essential feature of the education of a young American.

Second, education requires not that pupils be kept safe from statements which 'give rise to misunderstanding and prejudice,' but that they learn how to deal with those statements fearlessly and reasonably."

The Right Reverend Edward L. Parsons, Retired Bishop of California:

"One must recognize that on the surface there would seem to be a distinction between the articles in The Nation which discussed the Roman Catholic Church's position on political questions and the like, and those dealing with science.

The distinction is however not fundamentally valid. It is quite proper as a matter of public policy to keep out of the school libraries journals or books which are frankly denominational, or those which make a business of attacking other religious faiths, but if we are to have educated and intelligent citizens it is of first importance that they should learn to think for themselves. In order to think for themselves they must know something of the way in which their particular religious beliefs cut across and make impact upon the ordinary culture of the society in which they live. Science plays too large a part in modern life to be left out as a part of that culture. If high school boys and girls are old enough and intelligent enough to use journals like The Nation for help in political or economic questions they ought to know what a competent writer may have to say about the relation of their religion to such questions as Mr. Blanshard discussed, or to any others. I should myself be sorry to think that any young people of my own Church were to be protected from knowing what other people might think of the position of that Church upon any ques-

[22] *MacLeish*, p. 10.

[23] *MacLeish*, pp. 13-15

tion, whether social, political, economic or scientific. In one sense there is here an issue of freedom, but in my judgment it is primarily a question of what kind of American citizens we want."

IS THE STUDY OF ANY CONTROVERSIAL PROBLEM AN ISSUE?

Other than to state that as long as *The Nation* confined itself to political, economic and social criticism it was admitted to the approved list, Jansen's pamphlet did not deal with the implications of the ban on *The Nation* for other subjects of study. A number of those quoted in the MacLeish brief, however, were concerned with those implications. These writers felt that a logical application of the principle upon which this particular magazine was excluded would jeopardize not only the study of our most important historical traditions but also any consideration of the most vital contemporary problems, many of which are admittedly of a controversial nature. In a sense, the point raised is similar to that raised by the quotations in the preceding section, namely, the question of the difficulty of drawing a line between religious and non-religious controversy. This position is brought out in the following statements quoted in MacLeish's Brief:[24]

Mr. Nathan Frankel, in his reply to the Superintendent:

> "If you really wanted to apply this principle in practice, you would have to eliminate all courses in the history of medieval and modern Europe. This history abounds in highly controversial facts and faiths, creeds and opinions, all pertaining to religion. What is the sale of indulgences, Luther's theses at Wittenberg, Galileo, Savonarola, the Inquisition? Is a discussion of the sale of relics in the Twentieth Century less a fact of life and history than the sale of indulgences in the Sixteenth Century? Or is it the current educational standard of your Board that pupils are scrupulously to be kept in ignorance of the facts and doctrines, beliefs and opinions of their own generation?"

Walter Gellhorn, Professor of Law, Columbia University:

> "In the final analysis I suppose that it is one of education's chief aims to stimulate reexamination and reevaluation of ideas and beliefs which we might otherwise never appraise. In this connection I am troubled by your concluding assertion that 'the Board will continue to see to it that there shall be no crticism of the religious beliefs of any groups in the schools of New York City.' If this statement be taken at face value, you seem to suggest that criticism of any view which its holders choose to describe as 'religious' is to be forbidden, without reference to its reasonableness, thoughtfulness, or purpose."

Professor H. Gordon Hullfish, The Ohio State University:

> "We live in a world of controversy and will continue to do so so long as we remain true to our heritage. Our educational task is to help young people live within that world with a maximum of independence. This task cannot be accomplished by withdrawing them from the presence of controversy. Quite the contrary is the case. A school is the one place in this culture where controversy may be met head-on under educative conditions. If this opportunity is denied in connection with religion, it may then be denied in connection with every issue on the horizon. Our schools will then have gone out of business so far as preparing young people to live as citizens in a free world is concerned."

IS THE NATURE OF DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION AN ISSUE?

One of the principal defenses advanced by Jansen is that the Board's action upholds the American tradition of the proper role of public education. He states:

> "Every responsible school superintendent and every responsible Board of Education will state that criticism of religious beliefs should not be carried on by our teachers or pupils because the American public school is and always must be a unifying factor in American life."[25]

The concluding paragraph in the pamphlet reiterates this allegiance to the traditions of the function of American education in American life:

> "The Board of Superintendents issues this statement because it is necessary to do away with the misrepresentations and evasions that have prevented the friends of public education from seeing the real issue. Once the facts are known, the action taken by the Board of Superintendents must be considered not only right but necessary. That action is in accord with the highest traditions of public education in America. Guided by those traditions, the Board will continue to see to it that there shall be no criticism of the religious beliefs of any groups in the schools of New York City"[26]

These paragraphs must be regarded as significant because they attempt to ground the Board's specific action not in a specific set of circumstances but upon a fundamental conception of the nature, purpose, and function of education in American democracy. They move, therefore, toward a revelation of those fundamental questions which, as indicated in the in-

[24] *MacLeish*, pp. 10, 14.

[25] *Jansen*, p. 8.

[26] *Jansen*, p. 12.

troductory section of this article, seem to be beneath the more obvious issues.

The whole tenor of the *Brief Amicus Curiae* indicates that MacLeish and his associates are equally willing to ground a judgment of the Board's action upon American tradition and upon a fundamental conception of the role of American education. Their reading of that tradition and their conception of that role, however, are markedly different from that contained in the Jansen statement. MacLeish's own position is:[27]

> "As we stated at the beginning of this Brief, what gives us concern in this whole matter is not so much the arbitrary and unconscionable banning of *The Nation,* as it is the general practice of the Board which the banning of *The Nation* reveals. Even if it is granted, for the purposes of argument, that the twenty-one sentences to which the Superintendent takes exception were sentences so insidiously corrupting in their effect on immature minds that immature minds could not be trusted to judge them for themselves—an assumption difficult to defend—it would hardly follow that the proper method of dealing with such a situation was to put *The Nation* on an index expurgatorius of publications which the school libraries are forbidden to contain.
>
> Lists of forbidden books, whether established affirmatively or negatively, are wholly foreign to the American tradition of individual responsibility and individual dignity, resting as it does on freedom of mind and freedom in inquiry."

The conception of education which seems in keeping with general thought of the *Brief* has been indicated by some of the quotations already presented. The relation of that conception to the American tradition is brought out in the following quotation from the statement of the Executive Committee of the National Society of College Teachers of Education:[28]

> "The action of the Board is an attack upon democratic education, a primary obligation of which is the right of the individual to learn. It is an established and fundamental principle that only as boys and girls have an opportunity to study all aspects of controversial issues and thus come to their own conclusions on the basis of fact and logic can they become responsible men and women in a free society. The long accepted and cherished ideal of the American people is that the way to defeat a wrong idea is to have a sounder and better one, but not to suppress those ideas with which we disagree, even though they may be questionable or debatable. Abandonment of this principle is a first step on the path to the suppression of academic freedom, and toward thought-control, and finally the denial of all types of democratic freedom."

In concluding the *Brief,* MacLeish dealt with the question, raised by Jansen, of making the school a unifying force in American life. MacLeish's statement is:[29]

> "There remains, of the Superintendent's argument, therefore, only the defense that the duty of the schools to unify American life justifies the exclusion from school libraries of periodicals which contain 'criticism of the religious beliefs of any groups.' . . . The Superintendent is to be congratulated on his concern for unification. But he should recall that the reason most commonly given for infringement of individual liberties in totalitarian states is precisely the argument that it is necessary to silence certain opinions in order to unify the people. In a free society the freedom of the individual, and the responsibility for individual inquiry and individual decision which accompanies that freedom, come *first.* They can never be sacrified to other considerations, however worthy, without endangering the essential character of the society itself.
>
> Mr. Lewis Mumford, in his letter to the Superintendent which has been cited above, replies to this argument of the overriding importance of unification in the following words:
>
> 'Before you irrevocably commit yourself to this kind of censorship, I beg you to consider the full implications of your policy. There are two methods of achieving unity in any society: one is by suppression of differences; the other is by the cooperative pursuit of common goals, which transcend the partialities and particularities of special interests. Precisely because the separation of Church and State rules out any kind of religious teaching in our schools, it is important that this great realm of human life should be open to the student's independent exploration. High religion need fear no form of open inquiry: the baser forms of religion, irrational dogma, superstition, empty taboo should in the interests of a healthy democracy be subject to fearless examination, if not in the classroom, then at least in the student's private study in the library. To have access to truth and reasonable opinion, even when established institutions are opposed to its expression, is the essential right of every citizen living under the Constitution of the United States of America; and to ensure this access is a duty of every public school in our land. There is no higher obligation in public education.'"

[27] *MacLeish,* p. 11.
[28] *Macleish,* pp. 15-16.
[29] *MacLeish,* p. 17.

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THE CATHOLIC VIEW OF CHURCH AND STATE

—A Review of two Recent Books

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The Catholic position on the relationship between church and state is a closely reasoned argument from the fundamental premises of the Church. Wilfrid Parsons, S. J., attempts three major tasks.[1] First, he seeks to state the "true" sense in which church and state are to be separate in America by determining the intent of the authors of the First Amendment. He then endeavors to show that the First Amendment should be interpreted as a statement about the nature of the state rather than the nature of the church. The third major phase of Father Parsons' book is a critical review of recent court decisions in the light of the Catholic premises.

In regard to the first of these tasks, Father Parsons' position is summed up in his statement: "The modern trend toward governmental control of schools was as foreign to the mind of the men who made the Constitution as was the modern concept of separation of church and state." (p. 58) The founding fathers were faced with a multitude of sects, some of which were accepted by separate states as the "established" church, and consequently they decided that the federal government should remain neutral among them all. Historically, the principle was equality of all religions, and separation was not adopted as a principle but became a policy only later under the influence of people like Horace Mann. The founding fathers intended the federal government to foster the Christian religion but not to establish any sect as having a favored position. Thus separation of state and church is not a principle of our constitution, and those who argue for separation are not supported by the intent of the Constitution. The notion of separation is a policy rather than a principle provided in the original nature of our state, and to Father Parsons it is a regrettable policy because it does not provide for the proper interaction between state and church.

It is interesting to note that in the second book written from the Catholic premises to be reviewed here we find a sweeping criticism of the "invocation of the historical argument, that is, the attempt to ascertain the intention of the framers and to make that interpretation controlling on current issues."[2] This author points out that the founding fathers, living in an age of intolerance and inheriting a background of bigotry, were not experienced in religious freedom in the modern sense. Thus Powers believes that the application of the intent of the founders to the conditions of the present is "reactionary in the worst sense of that term."

Furthermore, it seems that Father Parsons' appeal to the intention of the founders is related to his attempt to enforce an extreme separation between aims or "principles" and methods of attainment or "policies". He seeks to dissociate the policy of separation of church and state, which some interpret as the means to the achievement of religious freedom, from the principle of religious freedom itself. The principle is then regarded as immutable and unrelated to the conditions of time and place, while the policy of separation is regarded as unessential to the "true", i.e. unchanged, principle of religious freedom. Some would say that the principle of religious freedom does not continue to mean under the conditions of today's experiences merely the intent of the founders in the year 1789 and that today's principle of religious freedom derives its meaning as we relate our policies to modern conditions.

The second task of the volume is concerned with the proper relationship between church and state which follows from the true interpretation of the First Amendment. According to Father Parsons, the desirable relationship is one of distinction and cooperation rather than of separation. The First Amendment says that the state will not pronounce on religious doctrines rather than that all churches have equal value in the eyes of God.

Presumably, most thoughtful people would agree that the policy of separation should not be carried to so great an extreme that the church and the state may not cooperate. Those who support separation do not desire to remove the streets, sidewalks, sewage and water mains, fire hydrants and police services from use by the church. The real question concerns the nature and limits of the cooperation. Furthermore, most thoughtful people would doubtless prefer to determine policies on the basis of a theory of the democratic state rather than a particular theological doctrine. The difficulty is that we are confronted on Father Parsons' own grounds, not with a choice between a political theory and a theological theory, but with a choice between two theological theories. Though the Father rejects the interpretation of the First Amendment in terms of the proposition that all churches have equal value in the eyes of God, he formulates the "true" interpretation in terms of the dualistic view of the nature of man. We are left then with the substitution of one theological doctrine for another instead of with a truly political statement

[1] **Parsons, Wilfrid, *The First Freedom*, New York, The Declan X. McMullen Co., 1948, 178 pp.**

[2] Powers, Francis J., *Religious Liberty and the Police Power of the State*, Washington, The Catholic University of American Press, 1948, p. 76.

about the democratic policies for promoting religious freedom.

The third task of the volume under consideration concerns the application of Father Parsons' position to some of the issues with which we are faced today. The author disapproves of "a state monopoly of education" and the claim that the American public school for all the children of all the people is the bulwark of democracy, for it seems to imply that Catholic parochial schools are undemocratic. He regrets the Supreme Court decisions which interpret the Fourteenth Amendment as forbidding the "establishment" of religion to the states in the same way that the First Amendment forbids "establishment" to the federal government. He argues that everything that goes on in a Catholic school affects the public welfare and that therefore the parochial school is entitled to support from public funds. He believes that the purpose of the First Amendment was to leave the question of the support of religion up to the states and that therefore the Supreme Court should not substitute its judicial action for the right of the local community to do as it wills. The author thus in reality doubts the power of the Supreme Court to judicial review when it is concerned with questions of religious freedom. He regrets the tendency of the Supreme Court to "interpret church-state relations on what it considers to be wise and prudent, as legislators do, not on what is the law of the nation." (p. 177) Although this reviewer disagrees with most of these consequences, as he does also with the presuppositions responsible for them, he is delighted to see both the consequences and the presuppositions so well stated and so clearly related.

The volume by Powers,[3] to which we have already referred, is a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Jurisprudence, and as far as this reviewer's non-jurisprudent background can determine, is a superior statement of the scholastic position. The author finds that the doctrine of judicial review is a firmly established principle and that the Fourteenth Amendment "renders the legislatures of the states as incompetent as Congress to enact laws respecting the establishment of religion." (p. 67) Presumably the well settled nature of these two basic points means that they are in accordance with scholastic principles. The discrepancy between the positions of Powers and Parsons does not reveal to us which position is most in accord with dominant church opinion.

Powers' dissertation is based upon the observation that "in the long run ideas do count." (p. 3) He describes briefly the sociological jurisprudence of Rudolph von Ihering and Roscoe Pound in which social interests rather than absolute natural rights are taken as the criteria of value. Although Dean Pounds' theory provides for spiritual values, it is far from a thomistic interpretation, and its basic inadequacy is its lack of an established criterion of values, i. e., an absolute. Dean Pound interprets religion as one of several competing interests. This sociological jurisprudence does not recognize religion as a superior value, and does not award religion a preferred place in competing interests. "From the thomistic standpoint, religion as a 'social interest' is a miserable and squalid designation." (p. 14) Non-scholastic sociological jurisprudence offers religion only the inconstant and insecure basis of the prevailing social attitude toward religion, and carries the danger of too easy use of the police power to curtail religious minorities. This state of affairs results from denial of supernatural religion, of absolute and permanent values, and of God-given natural rights.

The author, after a telling criticism of extreme realism or the philosophy of force as he finds it in jurisprudence, develops the thomistic principles of man's dualistic nature. The human spirit, which transcends time and death, through its relationship with God provides an absolute value. Because man can plot his course toward his eternal destiny, he possesses inviolable human rights which exist prior to man's social relationships. The common good is the means by which the individual can reach his spiritual destiny. Therefore, the state must provide for the common good and must foster religion, i. e. the Church, and an attitude of neutrality toward the Church is untenable. The First Amendment is thus seen as a recognition of man's dualistic nature; the state needs the sanctions of a supernatural religion; supernatural theism is a necessary doctrine of the state. The scholastic does not believe that there should be a separation between religion and the state, although a policy of non-interference on the part of the state where there is wide denominational division is expedient.

Powers then presents and appraises the two philosophies concerning the place of the Court in its role as guardian of religious freedom, "the preservation of the political process argument" of Mr. Justice Frankfurter and the "more exacting judicial scrutiny doctrine" of Mr. Justice Stone, with the latter being favored because of its elevating of religious freedom to a preferred position over other values. The author indicates how the thought of the court has changed as it has sensed the consequences of its decisions. Major attention is given to cases dealing with the activities of the sect of Jehovah's Witnesses, particularly its attacks upon the Catholic Church. The author's position is that the court should, by restraining these activities, promote the public peace without limiting in excess the right of free expression. The position of the Church seems to be summed up in a statement from an Encyclical of Pope Pius XI: "Man cannot be exempted from his divinely imposed obli-

[3]**Powers, Francis J. *Religious Liberty and the Police Power of the Church*, Washington. The Catholic University of America Press, 1948, pp. 160.**

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gation toward civil society and the representatives of authority have the right to coerce him when he refuses without reason to do his duty." (p. 155)

Although a reviewer cannot leave his own biases, or perhaps prejudices, out of his appraisals, and although he must necessarily sample the thought of the author rather than treat it in its full context, yet he must indicate wherein the main issues are joined or evaded in the materials covered. The chief difficulty which this reader has with both of the books presenting a Catholic or scholastic point of view is that he cannot see how the full development of the democratic values may be obtained under the premises of authoritarian supernaturalism. After reading these materials relatively carefully one is not clear as to the direction which American social change would take if we were to follow out the consequences of the scholastic principles. For instance, Father Parsons quotes Archbishop McNicholas of Cincinnati as saying:

> No group in America is seeking union of church and state; and least of all Catholics.... If tomorrow Catholics constituted a majority in our country, they would not seek a union of church and state. They would then, as now, uphold the Constitution and all its amendments, recognizing the moral obligation imposed on all Catholics to observe and defend the Constitution and its Amendments.[4]

Yet Dr. Dawson reminds us that a presumably equally authoritative statement by John A. Ryan in *Catholic Principles in Politics* maintains that:

> Constitutions can be changed and non-Catholic sects may decline to such a point that political proscription of them may become feasible and expedient. What protection would they have against a Catholic state? The latter (the Roman Catholic State) could logically tolerate only such religious activity as were confined to the members of the dissenting group. It would not permit them to carry on general propaganda nor accord their organization certain privileges that had formerly been extended to all religious corporations.[5]

We are troubled by the discrepancy between these two statements but would submit that the major tendency within the materials covered seems to move toward the consequences indicated in the second of the two statements. If this be an accurate interpretation, then we seem to be justified in maintaining such a degree of separation of church and state that ecclesiastical and political coercion may not be accorded a means of entry upon the American concept of religious freedom.

[4]Parsons, *op. cit.* p. 83

[5]Dawson, J. M. *Separate Church and State now.* New York. Richard R. Smith, 1948, p. 104.

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